

THE IMPACT OF BLUEPRINT 2000
ON THE ROLE OF
THE FLORIDA SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

By
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A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE
SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends. They are my wife, Billie Kay; son, Devon, and daughter, Amy; parents, John V. and Clotielde Smith; sisters, Becky and Paulette, and brother, Bill; brother-in-law, Bob, and niece, Libby; good friends, Don and Elaine Cox and Don and Betty Turpin; and cohorts, Cheryl Fante and Bonnie Vorwerk. The love and support of these wonderful people afforded me the opportunity to complete this dissertation.

A sincere thank you is extended to my doctoral committee: James L. Doud, James W. Hensel, David S. Honeyman, William R. Powell, and especially to chairman, Dr. Phillip A. Clark. Under his leadership, these outstanding professors shared unselfishly their expertise and experience in support of my efforts.

Appreciation is given to my secretary and friend, Paula Bundrick; secretary and friend, Dianna Thompson; dear friend, Sandra Booth; and statistician and friend, Mbulaheni "Heni" Nthangeni. Their technical expertise, patience, and support produced this paper.

Finally, a special dedication to my wife, Billie Kay, and brother, Bill. Their love and devotion were tolerant and ever-present. Together, these individuals were bound by a

common thread of faith, love, and support.

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School of
the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education

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By

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December 1995

Chairman: Dr. Phillip A. Clark
Major Department: Educational Leadership

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of the Florida School Improvement and Education Accountability Act of 1991 (Blueprint 2000) on the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement roles of the Florida school principal and five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. Specifically, these roles and functions were analyzed relative to school type, school size, district size, and the experience of the school principal.

The study involved a stratified random sample of 300 K-12 Florida public school principals who were asked to respond to a survey instrument developed for the study. The following four questions were addressed.

1. Has the authority of the school principal been strengthened or weakened?

2. Has the effectiveness of the school principal been improved or impaired?

3. Has the decision-making of the school principal been enhanced or hindered?

4. Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased?

The analysis of data consisted of two components. The first component reported descriptive data and addressed the four questions presented in the study. The second component utilized the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) to report statistical measures of the research design. A post hoc analysis was conducted for any significant variables.

Two hundred fifteen (71.66%) K-12 Florida school principals responded to the survey. In an analysis of the descriptive statistics of the study, the greatest number of principals indicated increased effectiveness and improved decision-making in their leadership roles since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. While no change was indicated for the roles of authority and involvement, the principals did not indicate an impairment, weakening, or decrease in performance for any of their leadership roles or functions.

In a statistical analysis of the research design, a significant difference was indicated between school district size relative to the involvement role of the school principal. Also, a significant difference between school

district size was indicated relative to the community function of the school principal. No significant difference was indicated relative to school type, school size, or experience of the principal.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The role of the principal has been defined and influenced by historical events, changing philosophies, and circumstances. Since the early 1900s, various metaphorical themes describing this changing role can be identified. In the decades of the 1920s and 1930s, C. H. Johnston, F. W. Johnson, E. P. Cubberly, and P. R. Pierce characterized the principal as a value broker, spiritual leader, and scientific manager. According to school administration textbooks from this period, the principal embodied timeless truths and values, calling him "priestly or prophetic" (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 15).

During the 1940s, following World War II, a different type of school administrator emerged from the changing American scene--an administrator whose managerial style reflected the personnel management principles of Chester Barnard, Elton Mayo, and other human resource theorists of that time (Bolman & Deal, 1989). This post-war principal was described metaphorically as, simply, a democratic leader (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

By the 1950s, rapid advancements in technology, dramatic increases in student populations, and desegregation

(Brown v. Board of Education, 1954) had produced a growing diversity among schools. Coinciding with these changes was an administrative theory movement, suggesting that educational leaders develop and test theories in the same manner as researchers in science and mathematics. These factors exerted considerable influence upon scholars. Accordingly, J. O. Dunn, W. A. LeBaron, W. E. Young, W. A. Yeager, and other writers began to portray the principal as a theory-guided administrator (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

The decades of the 1960s and 1970s brought a greater federal role in public education, the institution of collective bargaining, and an increase in the size and complexity of schools. These influences again re-defined supervisory leadership in education (Pajak, 1993). During the mid-1960s, the federal government's War on Poverty and desegregation plans, coupled with dramatic increases in federal funds for public education from \$5.4 billion to \$12 billion, had a significant impact upon schools. The Head Start program (with its focus upon the development of basic skills in reading and math for pre-schoolers), the Vocational Education Act (which earmarked specific funds for vocational education and technical training), and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (allocating special resources to students and schools) prompted educational innovations such as "new" mathematics, team teaching, bilingual education, and audiovisual aids (Morris, 1976).

With these initiatives, the concept of the principal as change agent emerged. Now, school leaders were expected to be more concerned with effecting change and charting new courses of action than with democratic leadership (McCoy, 1961). Accordingly, principals often identified problems and made decisions before involving their school faculties and staffs (Cunningham, 1963).

Some social scientists proclaimed the change agent as the solution to the "state of confusion in many schools" (Pajak, 1993, p. 168). Nevertheless, as school principals became increasingly preoccupied with state and federal regulations, change, within the school context, meant little more than passive acceptance and implementation of programs promoted through public, private, and governmental enterprises.

In the decade of the 1970s, as principals reached out into the communities for support and school involvement, a growing disenchantment with bureaucracy promoted the belief that principals should relate to their school community as partners and friends, using persuasion rather than authority to achieve objectives (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

During this same time, educators were engaged in a difficult battle to earn the respect of the American public. Large-scale national curriculum efforts, open-plan schools, and individualized instruction were not producing the expected outcomes for school improvement. Although studies

of effective schools of the 1970s produced evidence that schools could make a positive difference, even in difficult circumstances, reform efforts were generally regarded as ineffective. This general failure resulted in a confidence crisis within the field of education (Fullan, 1993b).

This growing negative perception of schools was amplified by a wave of national studies that emerged during the 1980s. A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (1983), The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto (1982), High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America (1983), Action for Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Our Nation's Schools (1983), and Educating Americans for the 21st Century (1990) collectively promoted a past image of excellence in American education. The 36-page report, A Nation At Risk, was terse and to the point.

America is at risk because competitors throughout the world are overtaking our once unchallenged lead in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation. . . . Many 17-year-olds do not possess the "higher order" intellectual skills we should expect of them. (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983, p. 15)

These reports, however, routinely ignored dramatic societal forces that had an impact on the role of public schools--increased crime and violence, escalating drug and substance abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, a decline in moral values, dysfunctional families, and a rapidly growing and increasingly diverse student population. Nevertheless,

by the 1990s, many business leaders, public officials, and parents responded to the apparent need for effective public school reform and began--this time of their own volition--taking an active role in guiding the educational process and its leaders (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

For the first time in our history, the business of schooling is being redefined in relation to those being served. Efforts to bring schools into the twenty-first century are resulting in unprecedented inroads of market forces into the governance and organization of school. (Chub & Moe, 1990, p. 27)

This involvement led to the introduction of new state and federal mandates which, in turn, reflected two opposing philosophies for educational reform. One philosophy supported large-scale governmental involvement, while the other called for a decentralized restructuring of schools that empowered schools with decision-making and control. These diverging views created a new confusion regarding the role of the principal in school improvement (Fullan, 1993b).

Today, issues concerning the empowerment of principals, teachers, and students are the focus of contemporary educational reform in America (Parker, 1993). It is against this historical background that the emerging role of the Florida school principal can now be examined.

For more than 25 years, lawmakers and educational leaders have addressed the issue of continuous quality improvement in education. From the 1960s and into the 1980s, through their own initiative, Florida legislators and state-level policy makers focused their attention on school

improvement. As they identified those conditions and policies that should be established to ensure quality education in Florida, the issues became clearer, and legislative response more direct (Drummond & Snyder, 1984).

In 1973, the issue of equal educational opportunity was addressed through the Florida Educational Finance Program (F.S. 229.0531, 1); the issue of teacher quality improvement and competency-based teacher certification resulted in Teacher Education Centers for staff development and the Beginning Teacher Program (F.S. 229.053 [1], 231.7). To support high academic expectations, the Primary Education Program (PREP), the Progress in Middle Grades Education (PRIME), and the Raising Achievement in Secondary Education (RAISE) Bill established curriculum frameworks, student performance standards, and increased credit requirements for high school graduation.

Concern for quality management of schools and their resources prompted several educational management initiatives. In 1979, a task force of business managers studied school districts throughout Florida. Their report, Management Effectiveness in Florida's K-12 Public School System (Drummond & Snyder, 1984), made recommendations regarding educational management practices and conditions. Recommendations included providing a methodology for performance measurement, setting standards for instruction and administration, providing incentives and rewards, and

establishing a structure of checks and balances between labor management and school boards.

Florida Statute 229.595 (Management Training Act of 1979) was the direct result of the task force report. It provided the basis and resources for continuous and state-of-the-art management practices in each school district (Florida Council on Education Management Guidelines, 1983)

Specifically, this legislation provided a system for the state-wide training of district and school managers (Florida Academy for School Leaders, 1979), formed a policy and planning council to foster and oversee management development (Florida Council on Education Management) and provided the leadership and funding to support a long-term comprehensive program that would make educational managers in Florida among the highest performing managers in the nation (Management Training Act, Section 231.087, 1981).

The stated purpose of the Florida Council on Education Management (FCEM) was to develop new and better ways of recruiting and selecting principals and establish a means for certifying and rewarding principals for performance. Three levels of certification (Rules 6A-4.081 through 6A-4.085 FAC) were created: Level 1--the Educational Leadership Certificate, Level 2--the School Principal Certificate, and Level 3--the Professional School Principal Certificate.

By January 1984, the legislature, governor, and Florida Council on Education Management authorized several

management development projects (Drummond & Snyder, 1984). Most significant were two extensive studies that identified the competencies of high-performing principals. The first study (Huff, Lake, & Schaalman, 1982) analyzed "critical incidents" to expose motives, values, and traits--generic competencies often difficult to observe through other methods. The second (Gardner & Martinko, 1983) focused on the observable behavior of principals to develop a better understanding of the tasks these educational leaders perform (Huff, et al., 1982).

In the first study, Huff, Lake, and Schaalman identified competencies that characterized outstanding performers among public elementary and secondary school principals in the state of Florida. Based on the research and theories of David C. McClelland, data were collected, analyzed, and specific competencies--characteristics of the individual that contribute to effective performance--were identified. This contrasted with previous research that focused on the tasks principals perform, rather than individual principals who are effective. By concentrating on the principals themselves, a more comprehensive understanding of the competencies was reached (Huff, et al., 1982).

An observation investigation by Mark Martinko of Florida State University (Gardner & Martinko, 1983) complemented the Huff, Lake, and Schaalman study. In this

second study, Martinko looked at the observable behaviors of principals and analyzed the tasks they perform. From his research, Martinko identified a number of effective leadership behaviors. Together, these two studies provided a basis for defining competence, distinguishing between average and outstanding performers, and increasing leadership effectiveness among principals in Florida.

In their report to the Florida Council on Education Management, (Identification of the Competencies of High-Performing Principals in Florida, 1983), Croghan, Lake, and Schroeder summarized these and other studies conducted in several Florida school districts. By making a distinction between high-performing and average principals, these researchers identified essential competencies [skills] which were then classified as either high-performing or basic.

Coinciding with these studies was the development of a managerial competency model by Boyatzis, outlined in his book, The Competent Manager (1982). Boyatzis, president and chief executive officer of the McBer Company (which conducts management research), had worked in association with Harvard professor David McClelland, George O. Kemp, Jr., and a number of McBer Company staff members. Through their study of thousands of managers over a 12-year period, the Boyatzis Model was created.

This model established three elements of managerial behavior: (a) the functions and demands of the job, (b) the

organizational environment in which the organization exists, and (c) an individual's competencies. Through the intersection of these elements, effective managerial behavior and actions are believed to occur (Boyatzis, 1982).

Based on the Boyatzis Model, Croghan, Lake, and Schroeder's report, and other relevant research, the Florida Council on Education Management established the Florida Principal Competencies. These competencies were to accurately define the effective behaviors of average and high-performing principals.

Requirements for educational leadership certification, which includes FCEM-approved district management training and development programs and successful completion of the Florida Educational Leadership Examination, are outlined in State Board Rule 6A-4.082. The provisions for the implementation of these programs are found in the FCEM publication Preparing New Principals (1985). Determination of the successful performance of the Florida Principal Competencies is based upon FCEM-approved guidelines and documentation by the district school superintendent.

While the state endeavored to clarify and ensure effective principal behavior through the efforts of the FCEM, future legislation empowering schools with new authority--the Florida School Improvement and Accountability Act of 1991 (i.e., Blueprint 2000)--would soon cloud the picture again. According to the legislature, by the year

2000, the Florida School Improvement and Education Accountability Act of 1991 would

. . . establish a system of school improvement and education accountability based on the performance of students and educational programs. The intent of the legislature is to provide clear guidelines, or a "Blueprint - 2000," for achieving this purpose and for returning the responsibility for education to those closest to the students, that is the schools, teachers, and parents. (F.S. 229.591)

During the 1980s, as the concern for American public education grew, communities and local school districts across the country addressed the question of what students should know and be able to do. In North Carolina, the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools began a community-wide effort to define what a "world-class education system (would) look like in Charlotte-Mecklenburg, North Carolina" (Goals 2000, 1994, p. 2). The state of California developed curriculum frameworks--soon to be models for other states and school districts--as guideposts for school improvement, professional development, scholastic achievement, and student assessment. South Carolina, under the Education Improvement Act of 1983, established curriculum frameworks as part of on-going state-wide reform. And in Kentucky, the comprehensive Kentucky Education Reform Act developed standards for students as a key component of its state-wide educational reform initiative (Goals 2000, 1994).

Coinciding with this movement toward voluntary standards was the vision statement of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics that described what all students

need to know and be able to do in math. These math standards were the product of a consensus process that involved hundreds of math teachers over several years (Goals 2000, 1994).

In 1989, the nation's governors met with then President George Bush in Charlottesville, Virginia, where they agreed that the United States must establish ambitious educational goals. The educational goals for the Southern states, established by the Southern Regional Education Board and led by the current U.S. Secretary of Education Richard Riley, paved the way for this national goal-setting effort.

Since a key element of the National Goals (that students demonstrate competency in challenging subject matter) had not been defined, Congress created a bi-partisan council to clarify and define the term "competency". After months of debate, the council--known as the National Council on Education Standards and Testing (NCEST)--reached a consensus that voluntary national standards were desirable and feasible and also recognized that the lack of such standards perpetuated educational mediocrity and inequity (Goals 2000, 1994).

Furthermore, the council recommended that the federal government support the development of voluntary national standards as a basis from which communities and states could define "competency in challenging subject matter" for their own students. These standards, according to the council,

should be characterized by high expectations, focus, and direction. Furthermore, they should be voluntary, national in scope, and dynamic in nature (Goals 2000, 1994).

Based on these recommendations, President George Bush and then U.S. Secretary of Education Lamar Alexander announced the education agenda known as America 2000 (U. S. Department of Education, 1991). This agenda identified six goals to be reached by the year 2000:

1. All students will start school ready to learn;
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%;
3. Students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 demonstrating competency in challenging subject matter-- including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography, learning to use their minds well--thus preparing them for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment;
4. U.S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics;
5. Every adult will be literate with knowledge and skills to compete in a global economy; and
6. Every school will be free of drugs and violence, offering a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

In June 1991, another landmark event in the contemporary national education reform movement occurred. Secretary of Labor Lynn Martin and members of the

Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) published What Work Requires of Schools. This document, based on their examination of changes in the work world and the implications of those changes for learning, proposed a link between education and the real world. According to SCANS:

more than half of our young people leave school without the knowledge or foundation required to find and hold a good job. Unless all of us work to turn this situation around, these young people, and those who employ them, will pay a very high price. (SCANS, 1991, p. xv)

This report defined specific skills essential to success in the workplace and development of responsible citizens in the 21st century. In April 1992, the commission published another report, Learning a Living: A Blueprint for High Performance Part I and Part II, which provided a plan for educators, employers, and designers of certification and assessment systems (Parker, 1993).

As the national education reform initiative continued, new legislation, supported by President Bill Clinton, broadened the focus of the six goals of President Bush's America 2000 to include eight standards of achievement for all students in the United States. Passed by Congress and signed by President Clinton on March 31, 1994, Goals 2000: Educate America Act established the National Education Standards and Improvement Council (NESIC) and included the following education goals:

1. All children in America will start school ready to learn;
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%;
3. All students will master challenging subject matter;
4. U. S. students will be first in the world in mathematics and science achievement;
5. All adult Americans will be literate and able to compete in a global economy;
6. Every school in the United States will be free of drugs, violence;
7. Teachers will have access to training programs to improve their skills; and
8. Every school will strive to increase parental involvement.

In 1991, amidst these reports and governmental initiatives, the Florida legislature passed Chapter 91-283, Section 229.591, Florida Statutes, the Florida School Improvement and Education Accountability Act (1991), and Blueprint 2000: A System of School Improvement and Accountability. Blueprint 2000 was founded on the belief that

. . . the school is the unit of education and accountability, and the school principal is responsible for the administration of the school, supervision of the instruction, and the providing of leadership in the development, revision, and successful implementation of a school improvement plan. (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992, p. 5)

According to its authors, Blueprint 2000 would bring systemic change to Florida's public schools. The goal categories of Blueprint 2000 are

1. Readiness to start school,
2. Graduation rate and readiness for post-secondary education and employment,
3. Student performance,
4. The learning environment,
5. School safety and environment,
6. Teachers and staff, and
7. Adult literacy.

A fundamental element of this legislation with profound significance as it relates to the role of the principal is the local school advisory council. Through the legislation of Blueprint 2000, this advisory and shared decision-making body is empowered to assist the school principal in the development of an educational plan by which the school will be accountable:

Each council shall assist in the preparation and evaluation of the school improvement plan and provide such assistance as the principal may request in preparing the school's annual budget and plan. (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992)

Blueprint 2000 acknowledges the role of the principal as being responsible for

the administration of any school or schools at a given school center, for the supervision of instruction therein, and for providing leadership in the development, revision, and successful implementation of

the school improvement plan. (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992)

However, it clearly states the legislative intent that school improvement plans will be the product of a shared decision-making process that involves the stakeholders of the school community--parents, teachers, students, business and community representatives:

A decentralized system gives schools and districts greater freedom to design programs that better meet the needs of individual children. Along with this freedom comes responsibility, and the Commission encourages all local decision-makers (parents, students, teachers, administrators, school board members, post-secondary educators, and community members) to become full partners in accepting and carrying out this responsibility. (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992, p. i)

Ten years have passed since the establishment of the Florida Principal Competencies and the FCEM management training and development programs. Now, concerns are being raised by districts throughout the state as to whether the original management development programs and standards for performance are producing the necessary quality of leadership for today's schools (Leadership for a New Era, 1994).

In response to these concerns, and in cooperation with the state's five regional management and development networks and the Center for Educational Leadership at the Florida Department of Education, the FCEM authorized a study to review the processes upon which the selection, development, and appraisal of school leaders was based. To

conduct the study, the council established the Leadership for a New Era Task Force (1994), a committee composed of 24 educators, and chaired by project coordinator Hilda Cox.

This task force conducted a job analysis of 28 principals across the state identified as moving forward with school improvement initiatives in their schools. The results of the job analysis revealed a number of job dimensions identified as important by these principals: committed visionary, communicator, manager of decision-making, proactive, motivator, facilitator, developer, organizer, monitor, flexible, delegator, and knowledgeable (Leadership for a New Era, 1994).

Additionally, a group of entry-level or threshold dimensions emerged. These dimensions, which are basic knowledge or essential skills necessary to performing a job, but not usually related to superior performance, include planning, tolerance for stress, communication skills, leadership, analysis, impact/visibility, and work standards (Leadership for a New Era, 1994).

The task force--based on a review of the literature, job analysis, and new behavioral indicators of successful performance--confirmed the viability of the original Florida Principal Competencies; however, a number of important changes in the way principals govern and conduct school business were recognized. The principals involved in this study were committed to a vision for their schools, involved

others more than acting alone, facilitated more than dictated, organized and delegated for efficiency, stimulated the learning environment, shared responsibilities, knew what effective teaching and learning is about, and used technology to aid instruction and administration (Leadership for a New Era, 1994).

Statement of the Problem

Since the early 1900s, the role of the school principal was shaped primarily by societal forces and historical events, evolving naturally according to their influence. This changing role has been described metaphorically by educational scholars. Throughout, however, principals have enjoyed a certain autonomy believed necessary to the fulfillment of their responsibilities as school leaders.

Consistent with this historical pattern and legislative posture, Florida Statutes have empowered school principals with broad latitude for the supervision, management, and ". . . the instructional leadership of the educational program of the school . . ." (F.S. 231.085). With the enactment of the Florida School Improvement and Education Accountability Act of 1991 (Blueprint 2000), however, a subtle but significant change in this historical and legislative pattern has transpired. Now, Blueprint 2000 has designated the school principal as a facilitative leader who must apply a variety of skills to a process that involves

stakeholders within the community in the development of a school improvement plan:

. . . the spirit of the Accountability Act contemplates a cooperative and collaborative effort between principals and school advisory councils in developing school improvement plans. (Pat Gleason, General Counsel to the State Board of Education, 1994)

This new legislation impacts the autonomy the principal historically has maintained and mandates a new role. In so doing, state government supersedes traditional societal and historical influences and becomes the primary force in defining the nature of school leadership and management. The problem then is the question of authority and empowerment within a school. At issue is the principal's authority versus the empowerment of school advisory councils and other stakeholders.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement roles of the Florida school principal and five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. Specifically, the study analyzed these roles and functions relative to school type, school size, district size, and the experience of the school principal. The following four questions were addressed:

1. Has the authority of the school principal been strengthened or weakened relative to five leadership

functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

2. Has the effectiveness of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

3. Has the decision-making of the school principal been enhanced or hindered relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

4. Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Hypotheses

Leadership Roles

To examine the leadership roles of the school principal (authority, effectiveness, decision-making, involvement) relative to school type, school size, district size, or the experience of the school principal, the following null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance:

1. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the authority of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

2. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the effectiveness of the school principal relative to school

type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

3. Ho: There is no significant difference in the decision-making of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

4. Ho: There is no significant difference in the involvement of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

Leadership Functions

To examine the leadership functions of the school principal (curriculum, instruction, students, budget, community) relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal, the following null hypotheses will be tested at the 0.05 level of significance:

5. Ho: There is no significant difference in the curriculum function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

6. Ho: There is no significant difference in the instruction function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

7. Ho: There is no significant difference in the student function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

8. Ho: There is no significant difference in the budget function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

9. Ho: There is no significant difference in the community function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

Glossary of Terms

America 2000 is the education agenda announced by President George Bush in 1991 that identified six national education goals to be reached by the year 2000.

Blueprint 2000 is the school reform measure passed in statute by the 1991 Florida legislature (committee substitute for Senate Bills 2054 and 1504). Blueprint 2000 is Florida's long-term strategy relating to comprehensive revision of the state's education system. Chapter 91-283, Laws of Florida, established the Accountability Commission, seven state-wide education goals, and the framework for a School Improvement and Education Accountability program.

Budget is a plan or schedule that appropriates expenditures during a period relative to the projected or fixed revenues for that period.

Community is the group of stakeholders--parents, students, teachers, school staff, business-education partners, citizens, and school volunteers--having a common interest in a school.

Competency is a generic knowledge, skill, trait, self-schema, or motive that an effective principal uses to accomplish the duties and roles of the job as identified by the Florida Council on Education Management (FCEM).

Curriculum is a course of study, or all the courses of study, within a school.

Florida Council on Education Management (FCEM) is the policy and planning council established through the Management Training Act of 1979 to foster and oversee management development in the state of Florida.

Florida Principal Competencies are the original 19 ability items identified and adopted by the Florida Council on Education Management.

Goals 2000 is the Goals 2000: Educate America Act passed by Congress and signed by President Clinton on March 31, 1994.

Instruction is the system through which the curriculum of a school is promulgated.

Leadership Function (task) is a leadership responsibility of school principals.

Management Training Act of 1979 is the legislation passed by the Florida legislature that provided the policies, leadership, and support system for making state educational managers among the highest performing managers in the nation.

Principal is the building-level administrator of a school.

School Advisory Council (SAC) is a group of teachers, parents, students, and other citizens representative of the ethnic, racial, and economic composition of the community served by the school. SAC members are nominated by the school and appointed by the local school board to assist in preparing and evaluating the school improvement plan. Blueprint 2000 requires that the school board establish an advisory council for each school in the district.

School Improvement and Education Accountability Act of 1991 is Chapter 91-283, Section 229.591, Florida Statutes (Blueprint 2000).

School Improvement Plan is a key element of the Blueprint 2000 initiative for individual school centers. After a careful assessment of school needs, using input from various stakeholders, the school improvement plan identifies the direction and strategies necessary to meet the educational needs of the school.

Delimitations and Limitations

The delimitations and limitations for this study were as follows.

Delimitations

The following were the delimitations for the study:

1. The study focused upon legislation unique to the state of Florida, and the results cannot be generalized to other states.

2. The study did not measure the effectiveness of Blueprint 2000.

3. The study did not address the currency of the original 19 Florida Principal Competencies or their application to the leadership functions selected for this study.

4. The study concentrated on the school principal and not other stakeholders within the school community.

5. The study was not restricted to experienced principals.

Limitations

The following was a limitation for the study:

1. This study is an early measure of Blueprint 2000. Therefore, the recentness of Blueprint 2000 may obscure future perceptions of its impact on the role of the school principal relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 has provided an introduction, statement of the problem, and purpose of the study. Chapter 2 contains a review of the literature and other research related to the study. Chapter 3 includes a thorough description of the research design and methodology used in the study, and

Chapter 4 reports the results of the survey and data collection. Chapter 5 draws conclusions, evaluates the implications of the study, and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement roles of the Florida school principal and five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. Specifically, the study analyzed these roles and functions relative to school type, school size, district size, and the experience of the school principal. The following four questions were addressed:

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3. Has the decision-making of the school principal been enhanced or hindered relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?
4. Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased relative to five leadership

functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

This review of the literature recounts the manner in which the role of the principal has been defined and influenced by historical events, changing philosophies, and circumstances. It includes a historical perspective of the role of the principal, the impact of contemporary educational reform upon this role, educational management training initiatives in the state of Florida, and a preview of educational leadership for the 21st century.

The Principalship: A Historical Perspective

The role of the principal has been defined and influenced by historical events, changing philosophies, and circumstances. In the early 1800s, school reports made reference to headmaster, head teacher, or principal teacher. These titles described individuals who were teachers but also were involved in administrative functions such as the expenditure of school funds (Spain, Drummond, & Goodlad, 1956).

These principals were responsible for records and reports, school organization, buildings and equipment, discipline, and the care of students (Pierce, 1935). They served as town clerk, church chorister, grave digger, and court messenger and performed other occasional duties (Jacobson, 1954).

By the mid-1800s, the role of the principal was moving from direct instruction to management (Spain, et al., 1956). With that movement, a change in status and responsibilities was also occurring. Teaching duties were being replaced with records maintenance, school organization, and other management functions (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980).

By the end of the century, with this shift from instructional duties to increased administrative responsibilities, the principal was becoming a "directing manager, rather than the 'presiding teacher' of the school" (Pierce, 1935, p. 36). Although educational systems were more complex and required greater sophistication in leadership, this transformation in the role of the principal did not occur quickly.

The expectation that principals remain teaching experts or principal teachers, while being removed from the classroom to attend to managerial responsibilities, created a great source of conflict (Sargeant, 1926). By the turn of the century, this conflict resulted in few principals who would accept the dual responsibility for overseeing instruction and the supervision of teachers (Jacobson, 1954).

But the confusion was never easily discarded. According to Blumberg and Greenfield (1980), the expectation that principals serve the twin function of providing instructional leadership and managing school affairs had

been firmly rooted in the minds of school superintendents and school board members by 1900.

And decades later, a 1939 report of the Cincinnati Public School Board charged principals with "regulating instruction in the school, discovering defects or reporting them to trustees, and providing instruction to other teachers of the school" (New Jersey State Department of Education, 1986, p. 6).

Since the early 1900s, various metaphorical themes describing the changing role of the principal can be identified. In the 1920s and 1930s, C.H. Johnston, F.W. Johnson, E.P. Cubberly, and P.R. Pierce characterized the principal as a value broker, spiritual leader, and scientific manager. According to school administration textbooks from this period, the principal embodied timeless truths and values, calling the principal "priestly or prophetic" (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 15).

During the 1940s, following World War II, a different type of school administrator emerged from the changing American scene--an administrator whose managerial style reflected the personnel management principles of Chester Barnard, Elton Mayo, and other human resource theorists of that time. This post-war principal was described metaphorically as, simply, a democratic leader (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

By the 1950s, rapid advancement in technology, dramatic increases in student populations, and desegregation (Brown v. Board of Education, 1954) had produced a growing diversity among schools. Coinciding with these changes was an administrative theory movement suggesting that educational leaders develop and test theories in the same manner as researchers in science and mathematics. These factors exerted considerable influence upon scholars (Culbertson, 1988). Accordingly, J. O. Dunn, W. A. LeBaron, W. E. Young, W. A. Yeager, and other writers began to portray the principal as a theory-guided administrator (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

The Principalship: The Decades of the 1960s and 1970s

The 1960s and 1970s brought a greater federal role in public education, the institution of collective bargaining, and an increase in the size and complexity of schools. These influences again redefined supervisory leadership in education (Pajak, 1993). During the mid-1960s the federal government's War on Poverty and desegregation plans, coupled with dramatic increases in federal funds for public education (from \$5.4 billion to \$12 billion), had a significant impact upon schools. The Head Start program (with its focus upon the development of basic skills in reading and mathematics for pre-schoolers) the Vocational Education Act (which earmarked specific funds for vocational education and technical training) and the Elementary and

Secondary Education Act (allocating special resources to students and schools) prompted educational innovations such as new mathematics, team teaching, bilingual education, and audiovisual aids (Morris, 1976).

With these initiatives, the concept of the principal as change agent emerged. Now, school leaders were expected to be more concerned with effecting change and charting new courses of action than with democratic leadership (McCoy, 1961). Accordingly, principals often identified problems and made decisions before involving their school faculties and staffs (Cunningham, 1963).

Some social scientists proclaimed the change agent as the solution to the "state of confusion in many schools" (Pajak, 1993, p. 168). Nevertheless, as school principals became increasingly preoccupied with state and federal regulations, change, within the school context, meant little more than passive acceptance and implementation of programs promoted through public, private, and governmental enterprises.

In the 1970s, as principals reached out into the communities for support and involvement, a growing disenchantment with bureaucracy promoted the belief that principals should relate to their school community as partners and friends, using persuasion rather than authority to achieve objectives (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

During this same time, educators were engaged in a difficult battle to earn the respect of the American public. Large-scale national curriculum efforts, open-plan schools, and individualized instruction were not producing the expected outcomes for school improvement. Although studies of effective schools of the 1970s produced evidence that schools could make a difference, even in difficult circumstances, reform efforts were generally regarded as ineffective. This general failure resulted in a confidence crisis among educators (Fullan, 1993b).

The Principalship: The Decade of the 1980s

In 1978, a survey of school principals by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) reported the ever-present influence of change in the nature of schools upon the role of the principal. Although the NASSP survey described change as the implementation of programs and policies delivered from external sources, principals described themselves as the initiators or facilitators of major changes, not as the planners, consultants, or evaluators of change (NASSP, 1978).

While principals in 1978 viewed themselves as change agents, a growing negative perception of schools, amplified by a wave of national studies that emerged during the early 1980s, would soon make an impact upon school reform and the leadership role of principals in the reform process. A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform

(1983), The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto (1982), High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America (1983), Action for Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Our Nation's Schools (1983), and Educating Americans for the 21st Century (1990) collectively promoted a past image of excellence in American education. The 36-page report, A Nation at Risk, was terse and to the point. It sent an alarm that a "rising tide of mediocrity" was eroding the foundation of public education, threatening the future of America (1983, p. 15). The report stated that America had lost sight of the basic purposes of schooling and the high expectations and disciplined effort needed to attain them.

A Nation at Risk (1983) called for high standards for graduation, more meaningful preparation and incentives for teachers, accountability of educators, and responsible officials to provide the leadership necessary for reform. According to its authors, the success of this reform was dependent upon the development of leadership skills in those who lead schools.

Coinciding with these national reports was the publication of A Place Called School, a book by John Goodlad that sent a disturbing message to the American people on the current status of American schooling (Goodlad, 1984). Based on his study of schools throughout the United States,

Goodlad called for school leadership that emphasized the importance of principals to school quality and improvement.

Goodlad (1984) recommended that schools be capable of self-renewal and possess strong leadership with the ability to secure consensus and the capacity to lead in the solution of school-wide problems. He stated that wise principals would make decisions in consultation with other principals and the district. He also suggested that stakeholders within the school community--teachers, students, parents, non-parents, and district representatives--make up a policy and planning group chaired by the principal, not to handle daily administrative duties, but rather long-term planning and budgetary matters.

Beck and Murphy (1993) analyzed educational literature using metaphorical themes to illustrate the changing role of the principal. Together they cited a vast collection of sources in their descriptions and predicted future performance of principals. According to these authors, the dominant metaphorical theme for principals in the 1980s was the instructional leader. By their definition, an instructional leader was one who guides teachers and students toward productive learning experiences.

Furthermore, the principal of the 1980s was expected to be a problem solver who could provide resources that facilitate the teaching and learning process. These principals had to be visionary and possess the ability to

lead their schools toward the realization of this vision (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

Finally, the successful principal of the 1980s was described as a change agent because school improvement often required changes in educational operations. These themes expressed a sense of urgency that principals act quickly to rescue schools, using business-like strategies in the process (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

Since the publication of A Nation at Risk (1983), a number of educational scholars have evaluated its impact upon American education. In an interview featured in The School Administrator (Asayesh, 1993), these scholars--John Goodlad, Henry Levin, Phillip Schlechty, and TheodoreSizer--stated that the report provided a necessary warning regarding the condition of education in America, but that it looked at the wrong problems and suggested wrong answers.

Instead of focusing upon societal changes and their influence upon schools, the report depicted a misleading view of past excellence in education, made a scapegoat of public schools, and failed to recognize profound shifts in American life that placed untold demands upon educational systems across the nation (Asayesh, 1993).

In this interview, Goodlad (1984) said the report failed to recognize several issues, including: (a) evidence that the major factor in student success is the home, not school; and (b) the turnaround that began in the 1970s in

the decline of test scores. Goodlad described the aftermath of the report America 2000 as empty rhetoric that is politically driven (Asayesh, 1993).

Henry Levin, a director at the Center for Education Research, Stanford University, responded to the report as neglecting to recognize that the priorities for school success have changed to include all students and that today's students are burdened with social barriers unimaginable in the 1950s. His concept of reform called for bold risk-taking rather than compliance (Asayesh, 1993).

Phillip Schlechty, president of the Center for Leadership in School Reform, believed that schools were no worse than they had been in the past but that they were attempting to meet higher expectations for a greater number of students. He suggested a redesign of the existing system and opposed privatization and vouchers (Asayesh, 1993).

TheodoreSizer, chairman of the Coalition of Essential Schools, Brown University, stated that the report created a wave of regulation that stymied reform. He suggested the rising tide of mediocrity has more to do with television and dishonest politics than the school (Asayesh, 1993).

The view of the American Association of School Administrators and other educational leaders raised similar concerns: "short-term demonstrations are not a substitute for long-term positive and constructive change"; and "a scoreboard mentality will undermine efforts aimed at

enhancing student achievement" (McKenzie, Murphy, Carruthers, Cawelti, Hager, Larkin, Fricke, Smith, Mustone, & Billings, 1991, p. 8-15).

The Principalship: Educational Reform

During the 1980s, as the concern for American public education grew, communities and local school districts across the country addressed the question of what students should know and be able to do. In North Carolina, the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Schools began a community-wide effort to define what a "world-class education system (would) look like in Charlotte-Mecklenburg, North Carolina" (Goals 2000, 1993, p. 2). The state of California developed curriculum frameworks--soon to be models for other states and school districts--as guideposts for school improvement, professional development, scholastic achievement, and student assessment. South Carolina, under the Education Improvement Act of 1983, established curriculum frameworks as "part of on-going state-wide reform" (Goals 2000, 1993, p. 4). And in Kentucky, the comprehensive Kentucky Education Reform Act developed standards for students as a key component of its state-wide educational reform initiative.

Coinciding with this movement toward voluntary standards was the vision statement of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics that described what all students need to know and be able to do in math. These math

standards were the product of a consensus process that involved hundreds of math teachers over several years (Goals 2000, 1993).

In 1989, the nation's governors met with then President George Bush in Charlottesville, Virginia, where they agreed that the United States must establish ambitious educational goals. The educational goals for the Southern states, established by the Southern Regional Education Board and led by the current U.S. Secretary of Education Richard Riley, paved the way for this national goal-setting effort (Goals 2000, 1993).

Since a key element of the National Goals (that students demonstrate competency in challenging subject matter) had not been defined, Congress created a bi-partisan council to clarify and define the term competency. After months of debate, the council--known as the National Council on Education Standards and Testing (NCEST)--reached a consensus that voluntary national standards were desirable and feasible and also recognized that the lack of such standards perpetuated educational mediocrity and inequity (Goals 2000, 1993).

Furthermore, the NCEST recommended that:

"the federal government support the development of voluntary national standards as a basis from which communities and states could define competency in challenging subject matter for their own students. These standards, according to the Council, should be characterized by high expectations, focus, and direction. Furthermore, they should be voluntary,

national in scope, and dynamic in nature." (Goals 2000, 1993, p. 4-5)

Based on these recommendations, President George Bush and then U.S. Secretary of Education Lamar Alexander announced the education agenda known as America 2000 (U.S. Department of Education, 1991). This agenda identified six goals to be reached by the year 2000:

1. All students will start school ready to learn;
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%;
3. Students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 demonstrating competency in challenging subject matter-- including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography, learning to use their minds well--thus preparing them for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment;
4. U.S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics;
5. Every adult will be literate with knowledge and skills to compete in a global economy; and
6. Every school will be free of drugs and violence, offering a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

In June 1991, another landmark event in the contemporary national education reform movement occurred. Secretary of Labor Lynn Martin and members of the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) published What Work Requires of Schools. This document,

based on their examination of changes in the work world and the implications of those changes for learning, proposed a link between education and the real world. According to SCANS:

More than half of our young people leave school without the knowledge or foundation required to find and hold a good job. Unless all of us work to turn this situation around, these young people, and those who employ them, will pay a very high price. (SCANS, 1991, p. xv)

In April 1992, the commission published another report, Learning a Living: A Blueprint for High Performance Part I and Part II, which provided a specific plan for educators, employers, and designers of certification and assessment systems (Parker, 1993).

As the national education reform initiative continued, new legislation, supported by President Bill Clinton, broadened the focus of the six goals of President Bush's America 2000 to include eight standards of achievement for all students in the United States. Passed by Congress and signed by President Clinton on March 31, 1994, Goals 2000: Educate America Act established the National Education Standards and Improvement Council (NESIC) and included the following Education Goals:

1. All children in America will start school ready to learn;
2. The high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%;
3. All students will master challenging subject matter;

4. U. S. students will be first in the world in mathematics and science achievement;
5. All adult Americans will be literate and able to compete in a global economy;
6. Every school in the United States will be free of drugs, violence;
7. Teachers will have access to training programs to improve their skills; and
8. Every school will strive to increase parental involvement.

Today, issues concerning the empowerment of principals, teachers, and students are the focus of contemporary educational reform in the United States (Parker, 1993). It is against this historical background that the emerging role of the Florida school principal can be examined.

The Principalship: The State of Florida

For more than 25 years, lawmakers and educational leaders have addressed the issue of continuous quality improvement in education. From the 1960s and into the 1990s, through their own initiative, Florida legislators and state-level policy makers focused their attention on school improvement. As they identified those conditions and policies that should be established to ensure quality education in Florida, the issues became clearer, and legislative response more direct (Drummond & Snyder, 1984).

In 1973, for example, the issue of equal educational opportunity was addressed through the Florida Educational Finance Program (F.S. 229.0531, 1). In 1978, the issue of teacher quality improvement and competency-based teacher certification resulted in Teacher Education Centers for staff development and the Beginning Teacher Program (F.S. 229.053 [1], 231.7). In the 1980s, to support high academic expectations, Primary Education Program (PREP), the Progress in Middle Grades Education (PRIME), and the Raising Achievement in Secondary Education (RAISE) Bill established curriculum frameworks, student performance standards, and increased credit requirements for high school graduation.

The concern for the quality management of schools and their resources prompted several educational management initiatives. In 1979, a task force of business managers studied school districts throughout Florida. Their report, Management Effectiveness in Florida's K-12 Public School System (Drummond & Snyder, 1984), addressed educational management practices and conditions and recommendations that included providing a methodology for performance measurement, setting standards for instruction and administration, providing incentives and rewards, and establishing a structure of checks and balances between labor management and school boards.

Florida Statute 229.595 (Management Training Act of 1979) was the direct result of the task force report. It

provided the basis and resources for continuous and state-of-the-art management practices in each school district (Florida Council on Education Management Guidelines, 1982-83).

Specifically, this legislation provided a system for the state-wide training of district and school managers (Florida Academy for School Leaders, 1979), formed a policy and planning council to foster and oversee management development (Florida Council on Education Management, 1983), and provided the leadership and funding to support a long-term comprehensive program that would make educational managers in Florida among the highest performing managers in the nation (Management Training Act, Section 231.087, 1981).

The stated purpose of the Florida Council on Education Management (FCEM) was to develop new and better ways of recruiting and selecting principals and establish a means for certifying and rewarding principals for performance. Three levels of certification (Rules 6A-4.081 through 6A-4.085 FAC) were created: Level 1--the Educational Leadership Certificate, Level 2--the School Principal Certificate, and Level 3--the Professional School Principal Certificate.

By January 1984, the legislature, governor, and Florida Council on Education Management authorized several management development projects (Drummond & Snyder, 1984). Most significant were two extensive studies that identified the competencies of high-performing principals. The first

study (Huff, et al., 1982) analyzed critical incidents to expose motives, values, and traits--generic competencies often difficult to observe through other methods. The second (Gardner & Martinko, 1984) focused on the observable behavior of principals to develop a better understanding of the tasks these educational leaders perform (Huff, et al., 1982).

In the first study, Huff, Lake, and Schaalman identified competencies that characterized outstanding performers among public elementary and secondary school principals in the state of Florida. Based on the research and theories of David C. McClelland, data were collected, analyzed, and specific competencies--characteristics of the individual that contribute to effective performance--were identified. This contrasted with previous research that focused on the tasks principals perform, rather than individual principals who are effective. By concentrating on the principals themselves, a more comprehensive understanding of the competencies was reached (Huff, et al., 1982).

An observation investigation by Mark Martinko of Florida State University (Gardner & Martinko, 1984) complimented the Huff, Lake, and Schaalman study. In this second study, Martinko looked at the observable behaviors of principals and analyzed the tasks they perform. From his research, Martinko identified a number of effective

leadership behaviors. Together, these two studies provided a basis for defining competence, distinguishing between average and outstanding performers, and increasing leadership effectiveness among principals in Florida.

In their report to the Florida Council on Education Management (Identification of the Competencies of High-Performing Principals in Florida, 1983), Croghan, Lake, and Schroeder summarized these and other studies conducted in several Florida school districts. By making a distinction between high-performing and average principals, these researchers identified essential competencies [skills] which were then classified as either high-performing or basic.

Coinciding with these studies was the development of a managerial competency model by Boyatzis, outlined in his book, The Competent Manager (1982). Boyatzis, president and chief executive officer of the McBer Company (which conducts management research), had worked in association with Harvard professor David McClelland, George O. Kemp, Jr., and McBer Company staff members. Through their study of thousands of managers over a 12-year period, the Boyatzis Model was created.

This model established three elements of managerial behavior: (a) the functions and demands of the job, (b) the organizational environment in which the organization exists, and (c) an individual's competencies. Through the

intersection of these elements, effective managerial behavior and actions are believed to occur (Boyatzis, 1982).

Based on the Boyatzis Model, Croghan, Lake, and Schroeder's report, and other relevant research, the Florida Council on Education Management established the Florida Principal Competencies. These competencies were to accurately define the effective behaviors of average and high-performing principals.

Requirements for educational leadership certification, which includes FCEM-approved district management training and development programs and successful completion of the Florida Educational Leadership Examination, are outlined in State Board Rule 6A-4.082. The provisions for the implementation of these programs are found in the FCEM publication Preparing New Principals (1985). Determination of the successful performance of the Florida Principal Competencies is based upon FCEM-approved guidelines and documentation by the district school superintendent.

While the state endeavored to clarify and ensure effective principal behavior through the efforts of the FCEM, future legislation empowering schools with new authority--the Florida School Improvement and Accountability Act of 1991 (i.e., Blueprint 2000)--would soon cloud the picture again. According to the legislature, by the year 2000, the Florida School Improvement and Education Accountability Act of 1991 would

. . . establish a system of school improvement and education accountability based on the performance of students and educational programs. The intent of the legislature is to provide clear guidelines, or a "Blueprint - 2000," for achieving this purpose and for returning the responsibility for education to those closest to the students, that is the schools, teachers, and parents. (F.S. 229.591)

According to its authors, Blueprint 2000 would bring systemic change to Florida's public schools. The goal categories of Blueprint 2000 are

1. Readiness to start school;
2. Graduation rate and readiness for post-secondary education and employment;
3. Student performance;
4. The learning environment;
5. School safety and environment;
6. Teachers and staff; and
7. Adult literacy.

A fundamental element of this legislation with profound significance as it relates to the role of the principal is the local school advisory council. Through the legislation of Blueprint 2000, this advisory and shared decision-making body is empowered to assist the school principal in the development of an educational plan by which the school will be accountable:

Each council shall assist in the preparation and evaluation of the school improvement plan and provide such assistance as the principal may request in preparing the school's annual budget and plan. (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992, p. 6)

Blueprint 2000 acknowledges the role of the principal as being responsible for

the administration of any school or schools at a given school center, for the supervision of instruction therein, and for providing leadership in the development, revision, and successful implementation of the school improvement plan. (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992, p.5)

However, it clearly states the legislative intent that school improvement plans will be the product of a shared decision-making process that involves the stakeholders of the school community--parents, teachers, students, business and community representatives:

A decentralized system gives schools and districts greater freedom to design programs that better meet the needs of individual children. Along with this freedom comes responsibility, and the Commission encourages all local decision-makers (parents, students, teachers, administrators, school board members, post-secondary educators, and community members) to become full partners in accepting and carrying out this responsibility. (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992, p. i)

Ten years have passed since the establishment of the Florida Principal Competencies and the FCEM management training and development programs. Now, concerns are being raised by districts throughout the state as to whether the original management development programs and standards for performance are producing the necessary quality of leadership for today's schools (Leadership for a New Era, 1994).

In response to these concerns, and in cooperation with the state's five regional management and development

networks and the Center for Educational Leadership at the Florida Department of Education, the FCEM authorized a study to review the processes upon which the selection, development, and appraisal of school leaders was based. To conduct the study, the council established the Leadership for a New Era Task Force (1994), a committee composed of 24 educators, and chaired by project coordinator Hilda Cox.

This task force conducted a job analysis of 28 principals across the state identified as moving forward with school improvement initiatives in their schools. The results of the job analysis revealed a number of job dimensions identified as important by these principals: committed visionary, communicator, manager of decision-making, proactive, motivator, facilitator, developer, organizer, monitor, flexible, delegator, and knowledgeable (Leadership for a New Era, 1994).

Additionally, a group of entry-level or threshold dimensions emerged. These dimensions, which are basic knowledge or essential skills necessary to performing a job, but not usually related to superior performance, include planning, tolerance for stress, communication skills, leadership, analysis, impact/visibility, and work standards (Leadership for a New Era, 1994).

The task force--based on a review of the literature, job analysis, and new behavioral indicators of successful performance--confirmed the viability of the original Florida

Principal Competencies; however, a number of important changes in the way principals govern and conduct school business were recognized. The principals involved in this study were committed to a vision for their schools, involved others more than acting alone, facilitated more than dictated, organized and delegated for efficiency, stimulated the learning environment, shared responsibilities, knew what effective teaching and learning is about, and used technology to aid instruction and administration (Florida Council on Education Management, 1994).

The Principalship: Leadership for the 21st Century

As national and state educational reform movements bring about change, school improvement and restructuring initiatives may impact the role of the school principal. An example can be found in the national standards established by the National Alliance of Restructuring Education (Brandt, 1991). These standards call for schools that enable students to acquire a new set of skills and ways of thinking about knowledge and its application in the real world. The standards address assessment, accountability, and the management of change by attending to different parts of the system simultaneously.

In the 1980s, Rosenholtz (1989) conducted an extensive analysis of effective school research and its implications for the future role of the school principal. Although she recognized limitations to these studies, Rosenholtz

explained school success as an outcome of the interaction of the principal and other elements of the school.

An example of how technology may impact future school leadership is found in CASE - IMS (NASSP, 1992). This software system allows for school leadership planning, coordination, and management of the school improvement process (Parker, 1993).

Other views of the future of school leadership have focused upon the impact of shared restructuring. Specifically, these studies relate the effort to increase faculty involvement in school improvement to teacher empowerment. Furthermore, teacher empowerment becomes essential to meaningful restructuring of schools and to educational reform. Now, administrators must find ways to reward imagination and courage (Hess, 1992).

Hess' study (1992) of school improvement addressed teacher empowerment, shared decision-making, and site-based management. Hess found a number of barriers to the change process, including organizational structure, teacher schedules, and social functions--norms of equality and autonomy. Some shared decision-making participants were described as sounding like the principal (Hess, 1992).

Some advocates of restructuring suggest the following changes in the way schools function (Parker, 1993):

1. Changes in the organizational structure of schooling;

2. New technologies for teaching and learning, with a focus on teaching for understanding;

3. Greater empowerment for teachers and principals at the school level; and,

4. The inclusion of parents, students, and the community in the education process at the school level.

Lewis (1989) and Anderson (1989) identified a number of common elements associated with restructuring: (a) schools that are student-centered, teacher-centered; (b) changes in how students learn, and instructional techniques; (c) application of restructuring to all aspects of the school, including students, curriculum, reduced bureaucracy; and (d) a central vision within the school to which all involved subscribe.

Longstreet and Shane (1993) reported the political and cultural complexities of the school restructuring process. They expressed a concern and perplexity for how social forces may impact the future of American education and its leaders.

Other writers of school improvement and restructuring have focused on outcome based education (OBE) and its attempt to prepare students for life, not simply college or employment (Brandt, 1993). In 1988, Spady developed the key concepts and frameworks of OBE to overcome the problematic constraints of administrative standardization. Spady believes that disillusionment with the quick fixes of the

1980s will lead to re-examination of how schools are organized and operated.

Newman and Wehlage, in Standards of Authentic Instruction (1993), reported findings from their studies of schools involved in restructuring. They maintain that school reform should focus on authentic student achievement and instruction. According to these authors, authentic achievement involves students in constructing meaning and producing knowledge. Students use disciplined inquiry to direct their work toward discourse, products, and performances that have relevance beyond success in school (Newman & Wehlage, 1993).

Fullan (1993a) and Betts (1992) view school reform as systemic reform. Betts (1992) defines a system as a set of elements that function as a whole to achieve a common purpose. According to Betts, elements are the essential components of the system. As a whole, a system is characterized by a synergy that, collectively, is greater than the sum of its elements. A system that imports and exports energy is an open system (Betts, 1992).

Another implication of systemic reform for school principals involves the increased complexity of school organizations. According to Fullan (1993a), people underestimate the complexity of how systems operate. The coordination of the components of a system are unique to each situation (Fullan, 1993b).

A variety of themes have been used to describe school reform, school restructuring, and their implications for school leaders. Barth (1991) portrays schools as a community of learners that promote collegiality, collaboration, shared learning, and shared leadership. Snyder and Anderson (1986) studied the importance of work culture to school productivity and their relationship to school management. Senge (1990) depicts schools as learning organizations where people discover how to create their realities. According to Senge, learning is not taking in information, but getting at the heart of what it means to be human (Senge, 1990).

In The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization, Senge (1990) describes his fifth discipline as systems thinking. According to Senge, systems thinking is the cornerstone of the core disciplines (personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning) that achieve meaningful change and transform schools into learning organizations.

The Total Quality Management (TQM) philosophy of W. Edwards Deming and its application to the role of the school principal calls for leadership (rather than supervision). The aim of leadership is not to find and record failures but to remove the causes of failure (Aquayo, 1990).

Recognized among the leading contemporary scholars of educational leadership, T.J. Sergiovanni calls for

reflective leadership (1991), moral leadership (1992a), value-added leadership (1990), and substitutes for leadership in education (1992b). According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), transformational leaders are needed to transform educational organizations into learning communities.

In Moral Leadership: Getting to the Heart of School Improvement, Sergiovanni studied the relationship of leadership authority to leadership supervision, policies, and practices. He compared sources for leadership authority (bureaucratic, psychological, technical, professional, and moral), leadership strategies, and their consequences. According to Sergiovanni (1992b), followership emerges when leadership practice is based on compelling ideas. Leaders and followers alike are attracted to and compelled by ideas, values, and commitments.

Beck and Murphy (1993) recognize the impact of social and historical forces on the role of the school principal. Together, they have identified patterns that may have an impact on educational leaders of the 21st century, including perceived crisis in the national economy, the changing nature of the social fabric of American society, and the evolution from an industrial to a post-industrial world. According to these writers:

The all-encompassing challenge for principals in the 1990s is to lead the transition from the bureaucratic model of schooling, with its emphasis on minimal levels of education for many, to a post-industrial model, with

the goal of educating all youngsters well--while at the same time completely changing the way principals themselves operate. They must reorient the principalship from management to leadership. They must not only accept the mantle of leaders, changing from implementors to initiators, from risk avoiders and conflict managers to risk takers, but they must also adopt leadership strategies and styles that are in harmony with the central tenets of the heterarchical school organization they seek to create. (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 190)

Today, many scholars of educational leadership depict the future role of the school principal as a relationship with people in the school community: a relationship where people are treated with respect, dignity, and equality. Consequently, schools become an interdependent community, in which the principal uses a caring ethic to make schools a place for learning (Parker, 1993).

The Principalship: Leadership Roles and Functions

Historically, the leadership roles and functions of the principal have been defined and influenced by societal events, changing philosophies, and circumstances. Now, with the introduction of school reform initiatives such as Blueprint 2000, a modern definition for school leadership has been written. Today, principals are expected to apply new skills and strategies to the tasks they perform.

Throughout the literature, a variety of roles and functions characteristic of the school principal have been consistently identified. This section reviews the four leadership roles (authority, effectiveness, decision-making, involvement) and five leadership functions (curriculum,

instruction, students, budget, community) selected for this study.

Leadership Roles

Authority

Florida Statutes have empowered school principals with broad latitude for the supervision, management, and instructional leadership of the school. These statutes charge the principal with the responsibility for the administration of the school, supervising instruction, and successful implementation of a school improvement plan (F.S. 231.085).

Studies of school leadership recognize a direct relationship between effective schools and the effectiveness with which this authority is delivered. The administrators of these schools play assertive roles in instructional programs, are goal oriented, and are clearly in charge of their schools (North Carolina State Board of Education, 1985).

Although various metaphors have been used to describe the changing role of the principal since the early 1900s--headmaster, principal teacher, scientific manager, change agent, and instructional leader--these metaphors have all consistently portrayed the principal as the authority of the school organization. The principal is the recognized school authority vested with the responsibility of managing and

supervising the educational program of the school (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

Effectiveness

From the 1960s to the present, Florida lawmakers and educational leaders have focused their attention on continuous quality improvement in education. This concern for the quality management of schools and their resources has prompted important management initiatives.

In 1984, the Florida Council on Education Management authorized several key management development projects. The purpose was to establish a long-term comprehensive program that would make educational managers in Florida among the highest performing in the nation (Drummond & Snyder, 1984). Studies by McBer (1982), Gardner (1984), and Martinko (1984) provided a basis for identifying outstanding performance essential to leadership effectiveness among principals in Florida.

Coinciding with these studies was the development of a managerial competency model by Boyatzis, outlined in his book The Competent Manager (1982). This model established three elements of effective managerial behavior and was used by the FCEM to define the effective behavior of high-performing principals. It was the study of principal effectiveness that led to the establishment of the Florida Principal Competencies by which principal performance is evaluated.

In their analysis of the changing role of the principal, Beck and Murphy (1993) included effectiveness of the principal among the dominant values of school leadership that emerged from the educational literature of the 1980s: "Numerous values are lifted up in the literature of the 1980s. Two, however--effectiveness and accountability--receive special attention in discussions of the role and tasks of the principal" (p. 162).

Decision-making

In the early 1980s, the FCEM initiated a long-term comprehensive program for educational leadership development in Florida. This initiative recognized decision-making as a role of effective school leadership (McBer, 1982; Gardner, 1984; Martinko, 1984).

The FCEM task force report, Leadership for a New Era, reaffirmed this recognition in 1994. The task force concluded that high-performing leaders utilize appropriate methods of making decisions, are decisive, and seek solutions to problems in an orderly and reasonable way (p. 9).

Blueprint 2000, another state initiative, acknowledged decision-making as an important role of the principal in the school improvement process in 1992. The Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability specifies that

decisions about teaching and learning should be made as close as possible to the students impacted by those decisions and should reflect a shared responsibility and collaboration among elected officials, parents,

students, faculty, staff, administrators, and community members. (1992, p.i)

Studies of effective schools and their leaders note the relationship between decision-making and the school principal. Effective principals make decisions by matching the appropriate decision-making technique to a particular situation. In so doing they help achieve the organizational goals (Ubben & Hughes, 1987; NAESP, 1991).

Involvement

In their study of proficient principals, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (1991) recognized the relationship between the involvement of the principal and quality schools. Proficient principals are visible in their schools, are initiators, and are directly involved in every aspect of school organization (p. 15).

The Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, in addressing the school improvement process, included "the substantive involvement of all stakeholders" among the duties, responsibilities, and role of the school principal. Their report, Blueprint 2000: A System of School Improvement and Accountability, states the principal is responsible for the leadership of the school and is actively involved in the successful implementation of the school improvement plan (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992, p. 5).

Snyder and Anderson (1986) suggested that the best schools are led by principals who are enthusiastic and

exhibit strong leadership. These principals are dedicated to their schools and spend most of their time involved in improving teaching. The involvement of the principal is a key component in the development of quality instruction.

Leadership Functions

Curriculum

Curriculum is one of the functions of proficient school principals. In the school or classroom environment, the curriculum is the foundation upon which instructional programs are established (NAESP, 1991).

During the 1940s, the relationship between the school principal and curriculum was identified among the dominant metaphorical themes of the decade. In fulfilling the duties as principal, the administrative leader was expected to be a "curriculum developer" (Beck & Murphy, 1993, p. 32). In recent years, this important leadership function has been highlighted among the studies of effective school leadership (NAESP, 1991), which stress the significance of the relationship between curriculum and the principal, describing curriculum as "the heart and soul of school administration" (NPBEA, 1993, p. 9-5).

Instruction

Instruction is a process that involves teachers, students, principals, and other staff members in the presentation and acquisition of knowledge. According to the NPBEA (1991), "Effective principals serve as instructional

leaders who possess a substantial knowledge base, ... plan, implement, and evaluate instructional programs. They plan their day so that their time and attention is focused on instruction rather than routine matters" (p.8-5).

In the 1980s, a high level of interest in education prompted an abundance of books and articles on the role of the principal. From this literature, a number of dominant metaphorical themes emerged to describe this leadership position. Among those was the principal as instructional leader. In this context, the principal was expected to facilitate the teaching and learning process (Beck & Murphy, 1993).

Studies of effective schools and their leaders point out the relationship between the principal and instruction. These studies identify instruction as a function of proficient principals and provide a strong basis for their instructional role (Ubben & Hughes, 1987; NAESP, 1991).

Students

The relationship between the principal and student has been widely noted (Beck & Murphy, 1993). In this function, the principal is expected to establish high expectations for students and implement principles of behavior management. The principal is responsible for providing a safe, orderly environment and assessing student performance (NAESP, 1991).

in their assessment of the merits of school sizes,
considered principal/student ratios:

One reason for preferring smaller schools is to make it more possible for the principal to have direct acquaintance with each student under his or her jurisdiction....When principals carry heavier loads than they should,...pupils suffer. (p. 167)

Effective principals establish a positive relationship with students. These principals nurture this relationship to foster the kind of learning environment essential to student success.

Budget

With the enactment of the Management Training Act (F.S. 231.087), the Florida legislature recognized that quality education in public schools requires excellence in its principals and school managers. Accordingly, this act directed the Florida Council on Education Management (FCEM) to establish a comprehensive program for educational management development. Among its provisions were the requirements for the training and certification of school principals.

Under the guidance of the FCEM, and in support of this management development initiative, State Board Rule 6A-4.0082 established the Specialization Requirements for Certification in Educational Leadership-Administrative Class. A leadership core curriculum consisting of eight areas of educational leadership was specified. Each area of this core was designed to prepare principals and school

administrators for their responsibilities as educational leaders. Educational finance is one of the eight areas included in this leadership core curriculum (FCEM Guidelines, 1983).

Consistent with these guidelines, the Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability (Blueprint 2000) recognizes the responsibility of the principal for the fiscal management of the school. In its publication Blueprint 2000: A System of School Improvement and Accountability (1995-96), the commission specifies that the School Advisory Council (SAC) "shall provide such assistance as the principal may request in preparing the school's annual budget" (p. 6).

Other studies emphasize the function of budget relative to the school principal. These reports cite budget management among the primary tasks (functions) that principals perform (NPBEA, 1993).

Community

Within the context of school leadership, community is the group of stakeholders--parents, students, teachers, school staff, business-education partners, citizens, and school volunteers--having a common interest in a school. Stressing the important relationship between the principal and the school community, the Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability states that the principal plays a key role in the "substantive involvement

of all stakeholders in the process of school improvement" (p. 5).

In their research of effective schools, Ubben and Hughes (1986) recognized the relationship between the principal and the school community. "Communities also influence a principal's behavior by their willingness to contribute resources to the school. Over time, effective instructional leaders mold the community's expectations for the school" (p. 21).

Principals of effective schools actively involve their community (Snyder & Anderson, 1986). These principals enlist participation, promote partnerships, and establish positive school-community relationships. This involvement underpins student achievement and provides support critical to school progress (Decker, Kilbourne, & Romney (1994).

Summary

This review of the literature has recounted the manner in which the role of the principal has been defined and influenced by historical events, changing philosophies and circumstances. It has included a historical perspective of the role of the principal, the impact of contemporary educational reform upon this role, educational management training initiatives in the state of Florida, and a preview of educational leadership for the 21st century.

Throughout the literature a number of leadership roles and functions characteristic of the school principal have

been consistently identified. This review analyzed these roles and functions relative to this leadership position. From these commonalities, the four leadership roles (authority, effectiveness, decision-making, involvement) and five leadership functions (curriculum, instruction, students, budget, community) for this study were selected.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Since the early 1900s, the role of the school principal has been shaped primarily by societal forces and historical events, evolving naturally according to their influence. Throughout, however, the principal enjoyed a certain autonomy believed necessary to the fulfillment of his responsibilities as school leader.

Consistent with this historical pattern and legislative posture, Florida Statutes have empowered school principals with broad latitude for the supervision, management, and ". . . the instructional leadership of the educational program of the school . . ." (F.S. 231.085). With the enactment of the Florida School Improvement and Education Accountability Act of 1991 (Blueprint 2000), however, a subtle but significant change in this historical and legislative pattern has transpired. Now, Blueprint 2000 has designated the school principal as the facilitative leader who must apply a variety of skills to a process that involves stakeholders within the community (School Advisory Council [SAC]) in the development of a school improvement

plan (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992).

This new legislation impacts the autonomy the principal has historically maintained and mandates a new role. In so doing, state government supersedes traditional societal and historical influences and becomes the primary force in defining the nature of school leadership and management. The problem then is the question of authority and empowerment within a school. At issue is the principal's authority versus the empowerment of school advisory councils and other stakeholders.

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement roles of the Florida school principal and five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. Specifically, the study analyzed these roles and functions relative to school type, school size, district size, and the experience of the school principal. The following four questions were addressed:

1. Has the authority of the school principal been strengthened or weakened relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

2. Has the effectiveness of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

3. Has the decision-making of the school principal been enhanced or hindered relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

4. Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Chapter 3 describes the methodology instrumentation, population and sample, research procedures, and data analysis. This information provided the basis for the analysis of data that was reported.

Instrumentation

For the purpose of the study, a questionnaire instrument was designed to measure the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the Florida school principal relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. The questionnaire included the following:

1. Glossary of Terms

2. Questions regarding demographic information about the school principal and their school: (a) the number of years as a school principal; (b) the type of school (elementary or secondary); (c) the number of students in

the school; (d) gender of the school principal; and e) age of the school principal.

3. Questions concerning the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement of the school principal relative to the following leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community.

Validity

The questionnaire instrument was juried for validity by a number of experts, including current and former school superintendents and school principals with professional training and educational leadership experience in Blueprint 2000 as a Florida school principal. These experts were asked to rate the instrument in terms of its effectiveness in sampling significant aspects of its purpose. They provided an estimate of its content validity and made recommendations for improving the questionnaire instrument.

Reliability

The questionnaire instrument was tested and retested (coefficient of stability) by a sample of school principals to measure the dispersion of responses for reliability. Reliability was expressed as a correlation coefficient using the Pearson product-moment coefficient (r) formula. Content reliability of the items (coefficient of internal consistency) was measured by the split-half Spearman-Brown prophecy formula.

Population and Sample

The study involved a stratified random sample of 300 K-12 public school principals from the population of K-12 public school principals in the state of Florida. The following data and methodology were used.

Elementary and Secondary Schools in Florida

A 1994 report by the Education Information and Accountability Services, Florida Department of Education, identifies 7 (10%) large school districts (student membership over 99,999); 28 (42%) medium school districts (student membership of 10,000-99,999); and 32 (48%) small school districts (student membership below 9,999) in the state of Florida. Within these 67 school districts, are 2270 K-12 public schools. Of these 2270 schools, 1503 (66%) are elementary, grades K-5, and 767 (34%) are secondary, grades 6-12.

Sample of Principals

The sample of Florida public school principals was established in the following manner.

The Florida Department of Education has alphabetically assigned a number from 1 to 67 to each public school district in Florida. These school districts were sorted by size: small, medium and large. Using a table of random numbers, a stratified random sample of these districts was drawn from each group: 10% (1) large school district; 42%

(12) medium school districts; 48% (15) small school districts; total, 28 school districts. The Florida Department of Education has assigned a school identification number to K-12 public schools in Florida. Using the identification numbers from the stratified random sample of 28 school districts, another stratified random sample of 300 K-12 public school was selected: 200 (66%) elementary schools, grades K-5; 100 (34%) secondary schools, grades 6-12. The 300 principals of these schools constituted the sample for the study.

Table 1

Population Sample: Florida K-12 Public Schools

<u>District Size & No.</u>		<u>Elementary Schools(66%)</u>	<u>Secondary Schools(34%)</u>	<u>Total Schools</u>
Small (48%)	15	96	48	144
Medium (42%)	12	84	42	126
Large (10%)	1	20	10	30
Total	28	200	100	300

Research Procedures

The following procedures were used to conduct the research.

1. The questionnaire packet was mailed to the stratified random sample of 300 Florida school principals selected for the study. The packet included: (a) a cover

letter addressed to each principal explaining the purpose of the study and instructions for completing the questionnaire instrument; (b) the questionnaire instrument; (c) a self-addressed envelope for returning the completed questionnaire; (d) a self-addressed stamped postcard for indicating the completion of the questionnaire. The self-addressed postcard provided a mechanism for each respondent to indicate the return of the completed questionnaire, while ensuring their anonymity.

2. A 14-day time period was established for mailing the questionnaire packet, completion by the respondents, and return of the questionnaire instrument.

3. A follow-up request by postcard to the principals who had not returned the completed questionnaire was mailed after 21 days.

4. At the end of the survey period, completed questionnaires were recorded, tabulated and formatted by categories of responses in preparation for the statistical analysis of the data.

5. A statistical analysis of the data was conducted using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer program to report statistical measures of the research design.

Data Analysis

The analysis of data consisted of two parts. The first part reported descriptive data, including the frequency and percentages of responses on a Likert type scale, and measures of central tendency.

The second part utilized the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) computer program to report statistical measures of the research design. The research design used a number of four-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine differences and relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables for all nine hypotheses. A post hoc analysis was conducted for any significant independent variables.

The independent variables were: (a) the experience of the principal; (b) the type of school (elementary, secondary); (c) the size of the school; (d) the size of school district (small, medium, or large). The dependent variables were: (a) the authority of the school principal; (b) the effectiveness of the school principal; (c) the decision-making of the school principal; (d) the involvement of the school principal, relative to the following leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community.

Hypotheses

Leadership Roles

To examine the leadership roles of the principal (authority, effectiveness, decision-making, involvement) relative to school type, school size, district size, or the experience of the school principal, the following null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

1. Ho: There is no significant difference in the authority of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, and experience of the school principal.

2. Ho: There is no significant difference in the effectiveness of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, and experience of the school principal.

3. Ho: There is no significant difference in the decision-making of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, and experience of the school principal.

4. Ho: There is no significant difference in the involvement of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, and experience of the school principal.

Leadership Functions

To examine the leadership functions of the school principal (curriculum, instruction, students, budget,

community), relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal, the following null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

5. Ho: There is no significant difference in the curriculum function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

6. Ho: There is no significant difference in the instruction function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

7. Ho: There is no significant difference in the student function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

8. Ho: There is no significant difference in the budget function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

9. Ho: There is no significant difference in the community function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

Summary

Chapter 3 described the methodology, instrumentation, population and sample. Research and data analysis procedures for the study are also presented. This information provided the basis for the analysis of data reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter describes the results of the study of the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the Florida school principal. It contains the results of the survey (The Florida School Principal Questionnaire), demographic information about the respondents, and descriptive data from the survey. The chapter is divided into the following sections: Demographic Information, Descriptive Statistics, Statistical Analysis, and Summary. Four research questions are answered and discussed on the basis of the findings of the study.

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement roles of the Florida school principal and five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. Specifically, the study analyzed these roles and functions relative to school type, school size, district size, and the experience of the school principal. The following four questions were addressed.

1. Has the authority of the school principal been strengthened or weakened relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

2. Has the effectiveness of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

3. Has the decision-making of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

4. Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

The study involved a stratified random sample of 300 K-12 principals from the population of K-12 principals in the state of Florida. These principals were asked to respond to a survey instrument (Florida School Principal Questionnaire) developed for the study.

To examine the leadership roles (authority, effectiveness, decision-making, involvement), relative to the school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal, four null hypotheses were stated. Each of these hypotheses was tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

To examine the leadership functions (curriculum, instruction, students, budget, community), relative to the school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal, five null hypotheses were stated. Each of these hypotheses was tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

The research design used a number of four-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine differences and relationships between the variables, and to report statistical measures of the hypotheses. A post hoc analysis was conducted for any significant variables.

Demographic Information

The study involved a stratified random sample of 300 K-12 public school principals from the population of K-12 public school principals in the state of Florida. The following data and methodology was used:

Elementary and Secondary Schools in Florida

A 1994 report by the Education Information and Accountability Services, Florida Department of Education, identifies 7 (10%) large school districts (student membership over 99,999); 28 (42%) medium school districts (student membership of 10,000 - 99,999); and 32 (48%) small school districts (student membership below 9,999) in the state of Florida. Within these 67 school districts, are 2270 K-12 public schools. Of these 2270 schools, 1503 (66%)

are elementary, grades K-5, and 767 (34%) are secondary, grades 6-12.

Sample of Principals

The sample of Florida public school principals was established in the following manner:

The Florida Department of Education has alphabetically assigned a number from 1 to 67 to each public school district in Florida. These school districts were sorted by size: small, medium, and large. Using a table of random numbers, a stratified random sample of these districts was drawn from each group: 10% (1) large school district; 42% (12) medium school districts; 48% (15) small school districts; total, 28 school districts. The Florida Department of Education has assigned a school identification number to K-12 public schools in Florida. Using the identification numbers from the stratified random sample of 28 school districts, another stratified random sample of 300 K-12 public schools was selected: 200 (66%) elementary schools, grades K-5; 100 (34%) secondary schools, grades 6-12. The 300 principals of these schools constituted the sample for the study of the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the Florida school principal.

From the sample of 300 K-12 Florida school principals, 215 (71.66%) principals responded to the survey. Of those who responded, 95 (44.2%) are female, 120 (55.8%) male; 14 (6.5%) had less than one year of experience as a school

principal; 69 (32.1%) had 1-5 years of experience; 58 (27%) had 6-10 years experience; 34 (15.8%) had 11-15 years of experience; and 40 (18.6%) had over 15 years of experience as a school principal. Table 2 displays the experience levels of the principals, frequency and percent of responses by experience, and cumulative frequency and cumulative percent of responses by experience (Table 2).

These respondents included 127 (59.1%) elementary school principals, 48 (22.3%) middle or junior high school principals, and 40 (18.6%) high school principals. Table 3 displays the demographic information of these respondents relative to type of school.

Table 1

Population Sample: Florida K-12 Public Schools

<u>District Size & No.</u>	<u>Elementary Schools(66%)</u>	<u>Secondary Schools(34%)</u>	<u>Total Schools</u>
Small (48%)	15	96	48
Medium (42%)	12	84	42
Large (10%)	1	20	10
Total	28	200	100

Table 2

Response Rate of K-12 Florida School Principals Relative to Experience

<u>Experience</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
Less than 1 Year	14	6.5	14	6.5
1-5 Years	69	32.1	83	38.6
6-10 Years	58	27.0	141	65.6
11-15 Years	34	15.8	175	81.4
Over 15 Years	40	18.6	215	100.0

Table 3

Response Rate of K-12 Florida School Principals Relative to Type of School

<u>Type</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
Elementary	127	59.1	127	59.1
Middle	48	22.3	175	81.4
High	40	18.6	215	100.0

Of these principals, 58 (27%) administered schools with up to 599 students; 63(29.3%) administered schools of 600-799 students; 36(16.7%) administered schools of 800-999 students; 43 (20%) administered schools of 1000-1700 students; and 15 (7%) administered schools over 1700 students. Table 4 displays the demographic information of these respondents relative to size of school.

Table 4

Response Rate of K-12 Florida School Principals Relative to Size of School

<u>Size</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
Up to 599	58	27.0	58	27.0
600-799	63	29.3	121	56.3
800-999	36	16.7	157	73.0
1000-1700	43	20.0	200	93.0
Over 1700	15	7.0	215	100.0

The 215 principals represented three different size school districts: 66 (30.7%) small; 113 (52.6%) medium; and 36 (16.7%) large. Table 5 displays the demographic information relative to district size.

Table 5

Response Rate of K-12 Florida School Principals Relative to District Size

<u>District Size</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
Small	66	30.7	66	30.7
Medium	113	52.6	179	83.7
Large	36	16.7	215	100.0

Descriptive Statistics

This section of descriptive statistics reports the frequency and percentages of responses on a Likert type scale of the principals who completed the questionnaire. The analysis addresses the four research questions presented in the study.

Authority

Question No. 1: Has the authority of the school principal been strengthened or weakened relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Curriculum

One hundred and two (47.4%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their authority role relative to curriculum since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Thirty (14.0%) principals

indicated their authority to be weaker and eight (3.7%), much weaker. Sixty-seven principals (31.2%) indicated their authority to be stronger, and eight (3.7%), much stronger. Thus 17.7% of the principals indicated their authority weakened, 34.9% indicated their authority strengthened, and 47.4% indicated no change in their authority relative to curriculum. Table 6 displays the descriptive statistics for authority relative to curriculum.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics: Authority of the Principal Relative to Curriculum

<u>Curriculum</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Weaker	8	3.7	8	3.7
2 Weaker	30	14.0	38	17.7
3 No Change	102	47.4	140	65.1
4 Stronger	67	31.2	207	96.3
5 Much Stronger	8	3.7	215	100.0

Instruction

One hundred and four (48.4%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their authority relative to instruction since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-two (10.2%) principals indicated their authority to be weaker, and six (2.8%), much weaker.

Seventy-five principals (34.9%) indicated their authority to be stronger, and eight (3.7%), much stronger.

Thus 13.0% of the principals indicated their authority had been weakened, 38.6% indicated their authority strengthened, and 48.4% indicated no change in their authority relative to instruction. Table 7 displays the descriptive statistics for authority relative to instruction.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics: Authority of the Principal Relative to Instruction

<u>Instruction</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Weaker	6	2.8	6	2.8
2 Weaker	22	10.2	28	13.0
3 No Change	104	48.4	132	61.4
4 Stronger	75	34.9	207	96.3
5 Much Stronger	8	3.7	215	100.0

Students

One hundred twenty-eight (59.5%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their authority relative to students since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty (9.3%) principals indicated their authority to be weaker, and three (1.4%), much weaker.

Sixty-two principals (28.8%) indicated their authority to be stronger, and two (0.9%), much stronger.

Thus 10.7% of the principals indicated their authority had been weakened, 29.7% indicated their authority strengthened, and 59.5% indicated no change in their authority relative to students. Table 8 displays the descriptive statistics for authority relative to students.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics: Authority of the Principal Relative to Students

<u>Students</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Weaker	3	1.4	3	1.4
2 Weaker	20	9.3	23	10.7
3 No Change	128	59.5	151	70.2
4 Stronger	62	28.8	213	99.1
5 Much Stronger	2	0.9	215	100.0

Budget

One hundred and three (47.9%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their authority relative to budget since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Forty-seven (21.9%) principals indicated their authority to be weaker, and eighteen (8.4%), much

weaker. Forty-three principals (20.0%) indicated their authority to be stronger, and four (1.9%), much stronger.

Thus 30.3% of the principals indicated their authority had been weakened, 21.9% indicated their authority strengthened, and 47.9% indicated no change in their authority relative to budget. Table 9 displays the descriptive statistics for authority relative to budget.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics: Authority of the Principal Relative to Budget

<u>Budget</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Weaker	18	8.4	18	8.4
2 Weaker	47	21.9	65	30.2
3 No Change	103	47.9	168	78.1
4 Stronger	43	20.0	211	98.1
5 Much Stronger	4	1.9	215	100.0

Community

Eighty-five (39.5%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their authority relative to community since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Thirty (14%) principals indicated their authority to be weaker, and seven (3.3%), much weaker. Eighty-one

principals (37.7%) indicated their authority to be stronger, and twelve (5.6%), much stronger.

Thus 17.3% of the principals indicated their authority had been weakened, 43.3% indicated their authority strengthened, and 39.5% indicated no change in their authority relative to community. Table 10 displays the descriptive statistics for authority relative to community.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics: Authority of the Principal Relative to Community

<u>Community</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Weaker	7	3.3	7	3.3
2 Weaker	30	14.0	37	17.2
3 No Change	85	39.5	122	56.7
4 Stronger	81	37.7	203	94.4
5 Much Stronger	12	5.6	215	100.0

Effectiveness

Question No. 2: Has the effectiveness of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Curriculum

Seventy-five (34.9%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their effectiveness role relative to curriculum since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Thirty-four (15.8%) principals indicated their effectiveness to be impaired and four (1.9%), much impaired. Eighty-nine principals (41.4%) indicated their effectiveness to be improved, and thirteen (6.0%), much improved.

Thus 17.7% of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 47.4% indicated improvement, and 34.9% indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to curriculum. Table 11 displays the descriptive statistics for effectiveness relative to curriculum.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics: Effectiveness of the Principal Relative to Curriculum

<u>Curriculum</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	4	1.9	4	1.9
2 Impaired	34	15.8	38	17.7
3 No Change	75	34.9	113	52.6
4 Improved	89	41.4	202	94.0
5 Much Improved	13	6.0	215	100.0

Instruction

Seventy-nine (36.7%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to instruction since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-nine (13.5%) principals indicated their effectiveness to be impaired, and six (2.8%), much impaired. Eighty-nine principals (41.4%) indicated their effectiveness to be improved, and eight (3.7%), much improved.

Thus 16.3% of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 47.0% indicated improvement, and 36.7% indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to instruction. Table 12 displays the descriptive statistics for effectiveness relative to instruction.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics: Effectiveness of the Principal Relative to Instruction

<u>Instruction</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	6	2.8	6	2.8
2 Impaired	29	13.5	35	16.3
3 No Change	79	36.7	114	53.0
4 Improved	93	43.3	207	96.3
5 Much Improved	8	3.7	215	100.0

Students

One hundred and nine (50.7%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to students since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-four (11.2%) principals indicated their effectiveness to be impaired, and one (0.5%), much impaired. Seventy-five principals (34.9%) indicated their effectiveness to be improved, and six (2.8%), much improved.

Thus 11.7% of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 37.7% indicated improvement, and 50.7% indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to students. Table 13 displays the descriptive statistics for effectiveness relative to students.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics: Effectiveness of the Principal Relative to Students

<u>Students</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	1	0.5	1	0.5
2 Impaired	24	11.2	25	11.6
3 No Change	109	50.7	134	62.3
4 Improved	75	34.9	209	97.2
5 Much Improved	6	2.8	215	100.0

Budget

One hundred and four (48.4%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to budget since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Fifty-one (23.7%) principals indicated their effectiveness to be impaired, and ten (4.7%), much impaired. Forty-seven principals (21.9%) indicated their effectiveness to be improved, and three (1.4%), much improved.

Thus 28.4% of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 23.3% indicated improvement, and 48.4% indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to budget. Table 14 displays the descriptive statistics for effectiveness relative to budget.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics: Effectiveness of the Principal Relative to Budget

<u>Budget</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	10	4.7	10	4.7
2 Impaired	51	23.7	61	28.4
3 No Change	104	48.4	165	76.7
4 Improved	47	21.9	212	98.6
5 Much Improved	3	1.4	215	100.0

Community

Seventy-six (35.3%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to community since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Thirty-two (14.9%) principals indicated their effectiveness to be impaired, and four (1.9%), much impaired. Eighty-seven principals (40.5%) indicated their effectiveness to be improved, and sixteen (7.4%), much improved.

Thus 17.3% of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 43.3% indicated improvement, and 39.5% indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to community. Table 15 displays the descriptive statistics for effectiveness relative to community.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics: Effectiveness of the Principal Relative to Community

<u>Community</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	4	1.9	4	1.9
2 Impaired	32	14.9	36	16.7
3 No Change	76	35.3	112	52.1
4 Improved	87	40.5	199	92.6
5 Much Improved	16	7.4	215	100.0

Decision-making

Question No. 3: Has the decision-making of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions?

Curriculum

Seventy-two (33.5%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their decision-making role relative to curriculum since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Thirty-eight (17.7%) principals indicated their decision-making to be impaired and eleven (5.1%), much impaired. Eighty-one principals (37.7%) indicated their decision-making to be improved, and thirteen (6.0%), much improved.

Thus 22.8% of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 43.7% indicated improvement, and 33.5% indicated no change in their decision-making relative to curriculum. Table 16 displays the descriptive statistics for decision-making relative to curriculum.

Instruction

Seventy-three (34.0%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their decision-making relative to instruction since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Thirty-eight (17.7%) principals indicated their decision-making to be impaired, and nine (4.2%), much

impaired. Eighty-four principals (39.1%) indicated their decision-making to be improved, and eleven (5.1%), much improved.

Thus 21.9% of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 42.2% indicated improvement, and 34.0% indicated no change in their decision-making relative to instruction. Table 17 displays the descriptive statistics for decision-making relative to instruction.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics: Decision-making of the Principal Relative to Curriculum

<u>Curriculum</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	11	5.1	11	5.1
2 Impaired	38	17.7	49	22.8
3 No Change	72	33.5	121	56.3
4 Improved	81	37.7	202	94.0
5 Much Improved	13	6.0	215	100.0

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics: Decision-making of the Principal
Relative to Instruction

<u>Instruction</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	9	4.2	9	4.2
2 Impaired	38	17.7	47	21.9
3 No Change	73	34.0	120	55.8
4 Improved	84	39.1	204	94.9
5 Much Improved	11	5.1	215	100.0

Students

One hundred and two (47.4%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their decision-making relative to students since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-one (9.8%) principals indicated their decision-making to be impaired, and six (2.8%), much impaired. Eighty-one principals (37.7%) indicated their decision-making to be improved, and five (2.3%), much improved.

Thus 12.6% of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 40.0% indicated improvement, and 47.4% indicated no change in their decision-making relative to students. Table 18 displays the descriptive statistics for decision-making relative to students.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics: Decision-making of the Principal Relative to Students

<u>Students</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	6	2.8	6	2.8
2 Impaired	21	9.8	27	12.6
3 No Change	102	47.4	129	60.0
4 Improved	81	37.7	210	97.7
5 Much Improved	5	2.3	215	100.0

Budget

Eighty-six (40.0%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their decision-making relative to budget since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Fifty (23.3%) principals indicated their decision-making to be impaired, and fifteen (7.0%), much impaired. Sixty principals (27.9%) indicated their decision-making to be improved, and four (1.9%), much improved.

Thus 30.3% of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 29.8% indicated improvement, and 40.0% indicated no change in their decision-making relative to budget. Table 19 displays the descriptive statistics for decision-making relative to budget.

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics: Decision-making of the Principal Relative to Budget

<u>Budget</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Impaired	15	7.0	15	7.0
2 Impaired	50	23.3	65	30.2
3 No Change	86	40.0	151	70.2
4 Improved	60	27.9	211	98.1
5 Much Improved	4	1.9	215	100.0

Community

Seventy-nine (36.7%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their decision-making relative to community since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-five (11.6%) principals indicated their decision-making to be impaired, and eleven (5.1%), much impaired. Eighty-four principals (39.1%) indicated their decision-making to be improved, and sixteen (7.4%), much improved.

Thus 16.7% of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 46.5% indicated improvement, and 39.5% indicated no change in their decision-making relative to community. Table 20 displays the descriptive statistics for decision-making relative to community.

Table 20

Descriptive Statistics: Decision-making of the Principal
Relative to Community

<u>Community</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
<hr/>				
1 Much Impaired	11	5.1	11	5.1
2 Impaired	25	11.6	36	16.7
3 No Change	79	36.7	115	53.5
4 Improved	84	39.1	199	92.6
5 Much Improved	16	7.4	215	100.0

Involvement

Question No. 4: Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Curriculum

Eighty-nine (41.4%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their involvement role relative to curriculum since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-three (10.7%) principals indicated their involvement to be decreased and four (1.9%), much decreased. Eighty-three principals (38.6%) indicated their involvement to be increased, and sixteen (7.4%), much increased.

Thus 16.7% of the principals indicated their involvement had been decreased, 46.5% indicated an increase, and 39.5% indicated no change in their involvement relative to curriculum. Table 21 displays the descriptive statistics for involvement relative to curriculum.

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics: Involvement of the Principal Relative to Curriculum

<u>Curriculum</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Decreased	4	1.9	4	1.9
2 Decreased	23	10.7	27	12.6
3 No Change	89	41.4	115	54.0
4 Increased	83	38.6	199	92.6
5 Much Increased	16	7.4	215	100.0

Instruction

Ninety-eight (45.6%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their involvement relative to instruction since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-three (10.7%) principals indicated their involvement to be decreased, and four (1.9%), much decreased. Seventy-three principals (34.0%) indicated their involvement to be increased, and seventeen (7.9%), much increased.

Thus 12.6% of the principals indicated their involvement had been decreased, 41.9% indicated an increase, and 45.6% indicated no change in their involvement relative to instruction. Table 22 displays the descriptive statistics for involvement relative to instruction.

Table 22

Descriptive Statistics: Involvement of the Principal Relative to Instruction

<u>Instruction</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Decreased	4	1.9	4	1.9
2 Decreased	23	10.7	27	12.6
3 No Change	98	45.6	125	58.1
4 Increased	73	34.0	198	92.1
5 Much Increased	17	7.9	215	100.0

Students

One hundred twenty-one (56.3%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their involvement relative to students since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Thirteen (6.0%) principals indicated their involvement to be decreased, and three (1.4%), much decreased. Sixty-six principals (30.7%) indicated their involvement to be increased, and twelve (5.6%), much increased.

Thus 7.4% of the principals indicated their involvement decreased, 36.3% indicated an increase, and 56.3% indicated no change in their involvement relative to students. Table 23 displays the descriptive statistics for involvement relative to students.

Table 23

Descriptive Statistics: Involvement of the Principal Relative to Students

<u>Students</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Decreased	3	1.4	3	1.4
2 Decreased	13	6.0	16	7.4
3 No Change	121	56.3	137	63.7
4 Increased	66	30.7	203	94.4
5 Much Increased	12	5.6	215	100.0

Budget

One hundred thirty-one (60.9%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their involvement relative to budget since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Twenty-eight (13.0%) principals indicated their involvement to be decreased, and ten (4.7%), much decreased. Forty (18.6%) principals indicated their involvement to be increased, and six (2.8%), much increased.

Thus 17.7% of the principals indicated their involvement decreased, 21.4% indicated an increase, and 60.9% indicated no change in their involvement relative to budget. Table 24 displays the descriptive statistics for involvement relative to budget.

Table 24

Descriptive Statistics: Involvement of the Principal Relative to Budget

<u>Budget</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Decreased	10	4.7	10	4.7
2 Decreased	28	13.0	38	17.7
3 No Change	131	60.9	169	78.6
4 Increased	40	18.6	209	97.2
5 Much Increased	6	2.8	215	100.0

Community

Eighty-five (39.5%) of the principals who responded to the questionnaire indicated no change in their involvement relative to community since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. Eight (3.7%) principals indicated their involvement to be decreased, and two (0.9%), much decreased. Ninety-five principals (44.2%) indicated their involvement to be increased, and twenty-five (11.6%), much increased.

Thus 4.6% of the principals indicated their involvement decreased, 55.8% indicated an increase, and 39.5% indicated no change in their involvement relative to community. Table 25 displays the descriptive statistics for involvement relative to community.

Table 25

Descriptive Statistics: Involvement of the Principal Relative to Community

<u>Community</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cumulative Frequency</u>	<u>Cumulative Percent</u>
1 Much Decreased	2	0.9	2	0.9
2 Decreased	8	3.7	10	4.7
3 No Change	85	39.5	95	44.2
4 Increased	95	44.2	190	88.4
5 Much Increased	25	11.6	215	100.0

Descriptive Statistics Summary

In an analysis of the descriptive statistics of the study, the greatest number of respondents to the survey indicated no change in their authority role relative to the functions of curriculum, instruction, students, and budget. A strengthening of authority was indicated relative to community.

In the effectiveness role, the greatest number of respondents to the survey indicated no change relative to

functions of students and budget. Increased effectiveness was indicated relative to curriculum, instruction, and community.

In decision-making, the greatest number of respondents to the survey indicated improvement relative to the functions of curriculum, instruction, and community. No change was indicated relative to students and budget.

In the involvement role, the greatest number of respondents indicated no change relative to the functions of instruction, students, and budget. Increased involvement was indicated relative to curriculum and community. Tables 26 and 27 display a summary of the descriptive statistics.

Table 26

Descriptive Statistics Summary

<u>Role/Function</u>	<u>Curriculum</u>	<u>Instruction</u>	<u>Students</u>	<u>Budget</u>	<u>Community</u>
Authority	NC	NC	NC	NC	+
Effectiveness	+	+	NC	NC	+
Decision-making	+	+	NC	NC	+
Involvement	+	NC	NC	NC	+

Note. Independent Variables: School Size, School Type, District Size, and Experience.

+ = Improved, Strengthened, Increased. NC = No Change

- = Impaired, Weakened, Decreased: Greatest % of Responses.

Table 27

Descriptive Statistics Summary

<u>Role/Function</u>		<u>Curr.</u>	<u>Inst.</u>	<u>Stud.</u>	<u>Budget</u>	<u>Comm.</u>
Authority	+	34.9	38.6	29.7	21.9	43.2
	NC	47.4	48.4	59.5	47.8	39.5
	-	17.7	13.0	10.8	30.3	17.3
Effective- ness	+	47.4	47.0	39.6	23.2	47.9
	NC	34.9	36.7	50.7	48.4	35.3
	-	17.7	16.3	11.7	28.4	16.8
Decision- making	+	43.7	44.1	40.0	29.7	46.5
	NC	33.5	34.0	47.4	40.0	36.7
	-	22.8	21.9	12.6	30.3	16.8
Involve- ment	+	46.0	41.9	36.3	21.4	55.8
	NC	41.4	45.6	56.3	60.0	39.5
	-	12.6	12.5	7.4	17.7	4.7

Note. Independent Variables: School Size, School Type, Principal Experience, and District Size

+ = % Improved, Strengthened. NC = % No Change.

- = % Impaired, Weakened, Decreased: Greatest % of Responses.

Statistical Analysis

A general linear research design procedure (Analysis of Variance [ANOVA]) tested the null hypotheses presented in the study at the 0.05 level of significance. This statistical procedure used two research models. The first model considered the interaction between the independent variables (school type, school size, district size, experience of the school principal). The second model considered no-interaction between the independent variables. Leadership roles (authority, effectiveness, decision-making and involvement) and leadership functions (curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community) were examined relative to the independent variables. A post hoc analysis of individual responses was conducted for any significant independent variables.

Tables 28 through 47 show the statistical measures of the research design, including Source (variable), Degrees of Freedom (DF), Sums of Squares (Type III SS), F Value, and $Pr > F$ (probability). Source is one of the independent variables (experience, school type, school size, district size). Degrees of freedom, refers to the pieces of independent information on which a sample statistic is based.

Sums of squares are variances that have not yet been divided by their respective degrees of freedom. Sums of

squares are used in the calculation of the analysis of variance (ANOVA). After a major work in calculation is completed, the sums of squares are divided by their appropriate degrees of freedom to get estimates of variability. The Type III Sums of Squares (SS) considers different numbers of responses within each source (variable) in the calculation.

The F value is a statistical measure as an indicator of whether sample means of the various factors represented in the study (experience, school type, school size, district size) differ significantly from one another, and whether the various factors interact significantly with one another. Probability ($Pr > F$) is the relative area under a normal distribution curve that shows how likely a sample mean is to arise under the null hypothesis.

Table 36 shows the Adjusted Means for School District Sizes for Involvement. Table 44 shows the Adjusted Means for School District Sizes for Community. These tables represent the significant differences indicated in Tables 35 and 46 ($* p = < 0.05$) between the school district sizes and two dependent variables (Involvement and Community).

Hypotheses: Leadership Roles

1. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the authority role of the school principal relative to school

type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the authority role of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the authority role of the school principal. ANOVA Tables 28 and 29 display the interaction model and the no-interaction model for authority.

Table 28

ANOVA Table for Authority of the Principal: Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	1.70	0.95	0.44
School Type	2	2.49	2.78	0.07
School Size	4	2.19	1.23	0.30
District Size	2	0.05	0.06	0.94
Error	152	67.94		

Table 29

ANOVA Table for Authority of the Principal: No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
<hr/>				
Experience	4	0.47	0.26	0.90
School Type	2	1.03	1.17	0.31
School Size	4	2.39	1.36	0.25
District Size	2	1.41	1.59	0.21
Error	202	89.11		

2. Ho: There is no significant difference in the effectiveness role of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the effectiveness role of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the effectiveness role of the school principal. ANOVA Tables 30 and 31 display the interaction model and the no-interaction model for effectiveness.

Table 30

ANOVA Table for Effectiveness of the Principal: Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	2.62	1.29	0.28
School Type	2	2.00	1.96	0.14
School Size	4	2.13	1.05	0.39
District Size	2	0.20	0.20	0.82
Error	152	77.45		

Table 31

ANOVA Table for Effectiveness of the Principal: No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	1.48	0.74	0.57
School Type	2	0.14	0.14	0.87
School Size	4	2.10	1.05	0.38
District Size	2	0.76	0.76	0.47
Error	202	101.27		

3. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the decision-making role of the school principal relative to

school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the decision-making role of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the decision-making role of the school principal. ANOVA Tables 32 and 33 display the interaction and no-interaction models for decision-making.

Table 32

ANOVA Table for Decision-making of the Principal:
Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
<hr/>				
Experience	4	3.50	1.28	0.28
School Type	2	1.29	0.95	0.39
School Size	4	3.84	1.40	0.24
District Size	2	0.41	0.30	0.74
Error	152	103.96		

Table 33

ANOVA Table for Decision-making of the Principal:
No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	0.78	0.30	0.88
School Type	2	0.28	0.22	0.81
School Size	4	3.60	1.38	0.24
District Size	2	0.88	0.68	0.51
Error	202	132.15		

4. Ho: There is no significant difference in the involvement role of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the independent variables. The no-interaction model indicated a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) among school district sizes (Tables 34 and 35).

A post hoc analysis comparing the involvement adjusted means for school district sizes indicated a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between large and medium size school districts, and also between medium and small size school districts relative to the involvement role of the school principal (Table 36).

Table 34

ANOVA Table for Involvement of the Principal: Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	0.49	0.27	0.90
School Type	2	0.16	0.17	0.84
School Size	4	0.24	0.13	0.97
District Size	2	0.04	0.04	0.96
Error	152	89.12		

Table 35

ANOVA Table for Involvement of the Principal: No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	0.15	0.09	0.98
School Type	2	0.28	0.34	0.70
School Size	4	0.87	0.52	0.71
District Size	2	3.18	3.79*	0.02*
Error	202	84.91		

* = $p < 0.05$

Table 36

INVOLVEMENT: Adjusted Means for School District Sizes

<u>District Size</u>	<u>Means</u>	<u>Small</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Large</u>
Small	3.25	N/A	0.0272*	0.7665
Medium	3.49	0.0272*	N/A	0.0302*
Large	3.21	0.7665	0.0302*	N/A

* = $p < 0.05$

Hypotheses: Leadership Functions

5. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the curriculum function relative to school type, school size, district size, and experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the curriculum function of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the independent variables relative to the curriculum function of the school principal. ANOVA Tables 37 and 38 display the interaction and the no-interaction models for curriculum.

Table 37

ANOVA Table for Curriculum Function of the Principal:
Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	2.42	0.95	0.44
School Type	2	0.78	0.61	0.55
School Size	4	2.67	1.05	0.39
District Size	2	0.15	0.12	0.89
Error	152	96.96		

Table 38

ANOVA Table for Curriculum Function of the Principal:
No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	0.72	0.30	0.88
School Type	2	0.15	0.13	0.88
School Size	4	2.17	0.90	0.46
District Size	2	0.62	0.52	0.60
Error	202	121.23		

6. Ho: There is no significant difference in the instruction function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the instruction function of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the instruction function of the school principal. ANOVA Tables 39 and 40 display the interaction and the no-interaction models for instruction.

Table 39

ANOVA Table for Instruction Function of the Principal:
Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	1.63	0.64	0.64
School Type	2	0.96	0.75	0.48
School Size	4	2.45	0.96	0.43
District Size	2	0.02	0.02	0.98
Error	152	97.30		

Table 40

ANOVA Table for Instruction Function of the Principal:
No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	0.51	0.21	0.93
School Type	2	0.85	0.71	0.49
School Size	4	3.37	1.41	0.23
District Size	2	0.62	0.52	0.59
Error	202	120.81		

7. Ho: There is no significant difference in the student function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the student function of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the student function of the school principal. ANOVA Tables 41 and 42 display the interaction and the no-interaction models for students.

Table 41

ANOVA Table for Student Function of the Principal:
Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
<hr/>				
Experience	4	2.30	1.49	0.21
School Type	2	2.19	2.83	0.06
School Size	4	2.20	1.42	0.23
District Size	2	0.51	0.66	0.52
Error	152	58.64		

Table 42

ANOVA Table for Student Function of the Principal:
No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
<hr/>				
Experience	4	3.04	0.20	0.94
School Type	2	0.16	0.20	0.82
School Size	4	2.65	1.74	0.14
District Size	2	0.89	1.17	0.31
Error	202	76.92		

8. Ho: There is no significant difference in the budget function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the budget function of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the budget function of the school principal. ANOVA Tables 43 and 44 display the interaction and the no-interaction models for budget.

Table 43

ANOVA Table for Budget Function of the Principal:
Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	2.61	1.13	0.35
School Type	2	0.53	0.45	0.64
School Size	4	2.78	0.34	0.85
District Size	2	0.52	0.45	0.64
Error	152	87.97		

Table 44

ANOVA Table for Budget Function of the Principal:
No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	1.98	0.87	0.48
School Type	2	0.03	0.03	0.97
School Size	4	3.02	1.33	0.26
District Size	2	1.07	0.94	0.39
Error	202	114.78		

9. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the community function relative to school type school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model did not indicate a significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the community function of the school principal. In the no-interaction model, a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) among the levels of school district size relative to the community function was indicated (Tables 45 and 46).

In a post hoc analysis, a comparison of the community adjusted means for school district sizes showed a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between large and medium size school districts, and also, between medium and small size school districts (see Table 47).

Table 45

ANOVA Table for Community Function of the Principal:
Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	1.18	0.52	0.72
School Type	2	2.30	2.04	0.13
School Size	4	2.46	1.09	0.36
District Size	2	0.05	0.05	0.95
Error	152	114.87		

Table 46

ANOVA Table for Community Function of the Principal:
No-Interaction Model

<u>Source</u>	<u>DF</u>	Type <u>III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>Pr > F</u>
Experience	4	0.55	0.26	0.91
School Type	2	0.39	0.36	0.70
School Size	4	2.86	1.35	0.25
District Size	2	4.69	4.42*	0.01*
Error	202	107.21		

* = $p < 0.05$

Table 47

Table for Community: Adjusted Means for School District Sizes

<u>District Size</u>	<u>Means</u>	<u>Small</u>	<u>Medium</u>	<u>Large</u>
Small	3.32	N/A	0.0208*	0.7171
Medium	3.60	0.0208*	N/A	0.0162*
Large	3.26	0.7171	0.0162*	N/A

* = $p < 0.05$

Summary

This chapter has presented the results of a study of the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement roles of the Florida school principal and five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. Specifically, the study analyzed these roles and functions relative to school type, school size, district size, and the experience of the school principal. The findings included demographic information about the principals who responded to a survey questionnaire (Florida School Principal Questionnaire), descriptive statistics pertaining to the study, and the statistical results of a number of four-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

In the analysis of the descriptive statistics of the study, the greatest number of respondents to the survey indicated no change in their authority role relative to the functions of curriculum, instruction, student, and budget. A strengthening of authority was indicated relative to community.

In the effectiveness role, the greatest number of respondents to the survey indicated no change relative to the functions of students and budget. Increased effectiveness was indicated relative to curriculum, instruction, and community.

In decision-making, the greatest number of respondents to the survey indicated improvement relative to the functions of students and curriculum, instruction, and community. No change was indicated relative to students and budget.

In the involvement role, the greatest number of respondents indicated no change relative to the functions of instruction, students, and budget. Increased involvement was indicated relative to curriculum and community.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the leadership roles (authority, effectiveness, decision-making, involvement) and leadership functions (curriculum, instruction, students, budget, community) relative to school type, school size, district size, and experience of the school principal indicated no significant differences in the independent

variables relative to school type, school size, or experience of the principal. A significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was indicated between large and medium size school districts, and also between medium and small size school districts, relative to the involvement role of the school principal. A significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) was indicated between large and medium size school districts, and also between medium and small size school districts, relative to the community function of the school principal.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Since the early 1900s, the role of the principal has been shaped primarily by societal forces and historical events, evolving naturally according to their influence. Throughout, however, the principal has enjoyed a certain autonomy believed necessary to the fulfillment of their responsibilities as school leader.

Consistent with this historical pattern and legislative posture, Florida Statutes have empowered school principals with broad latitude for the supervision, management, and "... the instructional leadership of the educational program of the school..." (F.S. 231.085, p. 102). With the enactment of the Florida School Improvement and Education Accountability Act of 1991 (Blueprint 2000), however, a subtle but significant change in this historical and legislative pattern has transpired. Now, Blueprint 2000 has designated the school principal as the facilitative leader who must apply a variety of skills to a process that involves stakeholders within the community (School Advisory Council [SAC]) in the development of a school improvement

plan (Florida Commission on Education Reform and Accountability, 1992).

This new legislation impacts the autonomy the principal has historically maintained and mandates a new role. In so doing, state government supersedes traditional societal and historical influences and becomes the primary force in defining the nature of school leadership and management. The problem then is the question of authority and empowerment within the school. At issue is the principal's authority versus the empowerment of school advisory councils and other stakeholders.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the authority, effectiveness, decision-making, and involvement roles of the Florida school principal and five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community. Specifically, the study analyzed these roles and functions relative to school type, school size, district size, and the experience of the school principal. The following four questions were addressed.

1. Has the authority of the school principal been strengthened or weakened relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

2. Has the effectiveness of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

3. Has the decision-making of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

4. Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Hypotheses

Leadership Roles

To examine the leadership roles of the school principal (authority, effectiveness, decision-making, involvement) relative to school type, school size, district size, or the experience of the school principal, the following null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

1. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the authority of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

2. H_0 : There is no significant difference in the effectiveness of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

3. Ho: There is no significant difference in the decision-making of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

4. Ho: There is no significant difference in the involvement of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

Leadership Functions

To examine the leadership functions of the school principal (curriculum, instruction, students, budget, community), relative to the school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal, the following null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

5. Ho: There is no significant difference in the curriculum function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

6. Ho: There is no significant difference in the instruction function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

7. Ho: There is no significant difference in the student function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

8. Ho: There is no significant difference in the budget function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

9. Ho: There is no significant difference in the community function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

Conclusions

This section states the conclusions of the study. It addresses the four research questions presented in the descriptive statistics and the nine hypotheses of the research design.

Descriptive statistics were reported in three primary categories: improved (strengthened, increased), no change, or impaired (weakened, decreased). Conclusions drawn from these data were based upon the greatest number (percentage) of responses occurring in one of these categories.

A general linear research design procedure (Analysis of Variance [ANOVA]) tested the nine hypotheses presented in the study at the 0.05 level of significance. Conclusions drawn from these data were based upon statistical measures of the research design.

Authority

Question No. 1: Has the authority of the school principal been strengthened or weakened relative to five

leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Curriculum

Thirty-eight (17.7%) of the principals indicated their authority weakened, 75 (34.9%) indicated their authority strengthened, and 102 (47.4%) indicated no change in their authority relative to curriculum. Therefore, the authority of the school principal relative to curriculum has not changed.

Instruction

Twenty-eight (13.0%) of the principals indicated their instruction had been weakened, 83 (38.6%) indicated their authority strengthened, and 104 (48.4%) indicated no change in their authority relative to instruction. Therefore, the authority of the school principal relative to instruction has not changed.

Students

Twenty-three (10.7%) of the principals indicated their authority had been weakened, 64 (29.7%) indicated their authority strengthened, and 128 (59.5%) indicated no change in their authority relative to students. Therefore, the authority of the school principal relative to students has not changed.

Budget

Sixty-five (30.3%) of the principals indicated their authority had been weakened, 47 (21.9%) indicated their

authority strengthened, and 103 (47.9%) indicated no change in their authority relative to budget. Therefore, the authority of the school principal relative to budget has not changed.

Community

Thirty-seven (17.3%) of the principals indicated their authority had been weakened, 93 (43.3%) indicated their authority strengthened, and 85 (39.5%) indicated no change in their authority relative to community. Therefore, the authority of the school principal relative to community has strengthened.

Effectiveness

Question No. 2: Has the effectiveness of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Curriculum

Thirty-eight (17.7%) of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 102 (47.4%) indicated improvement, and 75 (34.9%) indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to curriculum. Therefore, the effectiveness of the school principal relative to curriculum has improved.

Instruction

Thirty-five (16.3%) of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 101 (47.0%) indicated their

improvement, and 79 (36.7%) indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to instruction. Therefore, the effectiveness of the school principal relative to instruction has improved.

Students

Twenty-five (11.7%) of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 83 (37.7%) indicated improvement, and 109 (50.7%) indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to students. Therefore, the effectiveness of the school principal relative to students has not changed.

Budget

Sixty-one (28.4%) of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 50 (23.3%) indicated improvement, and 104 (48.4%) indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to budget. Therefore, the effectiveness of the school principal relative to budget has not changed.

Community

Thirty-seven (17.3%) of the principals indicated their effectiveness had been impaired, 93 (43.3%) indicated improvement, and 85 (39.5%) indicated no change in their effectiveness relative to community. Therefore, the authority of the school principal relative to community has improved.

Decision-making

Question No. 3: Has the decision-making of the school principal been improved or impaired relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Curriculum

Forty-nine (22.8%) of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 94 (43.7%) indicated improvement, and 72 (33.5%) indicated no change in their decision-making relative to curriculum. Therefore, the decision-making of the school principal relative to curriculum has improved.

Instruction

Forty-seven (21.9%) of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 95 (42.2%) indicated improvement, and 73 (34.0%) indicated no change in their decision-making relative to instruction. Therefore, the decision-making of the school principal relative to instruction has improved.

Students

Twenty-seven (12.6%) of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 86 (40.0%) indicated improvement, and 102 (47.4%) indicated no change in their decision-making relative to students. Therefore, the decision-making of the school principal relative to students has not changed.

Budget

Sixty-five (30.3%) of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 64 (29.8%) indicated improvement, and 86 (40.0%) indicated no change in their decision-making relative to budget. Therefore, the decision-making of the school principal relative to budget has not changed.

Community

Thirty-six (16.7%) of the principals indicated their decision-making had been impaired, 100 (46.5%) indicated improvement, and 79 (39.5%) indicated no change in their decision-making relative to community. Therefore, the decision-making of the school principal relative to community has not changed.

Involvement

Question No. 4: Has the involvement of the school principal been increased or decreased relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community?

Curriculum

Twenty-seven (16.7%) of the principals indicated their involvement had been decreased, 99 (46.5%) indicated an increase, and 89 (41.4%) indicated no change in their involvement relative to curriculum. Therefore, the involvement of the school principal relative to curriculum has increased.

Instruction

Twenty-seven (12.6%) of the principals indicated their instruction had been decreased, 90 (41.9%) indicated an increase, and 98 (45.6%) indicated no change in their involvement relative to instruction. Therefore, the involvement of the school principal relative to instruction has not changed.

Students

Sixteen (7.4%) of the principals indicated their involvement had been decreased, 78 (36.3%) indicated an increase, and 121 (56.3%) indicated no change in their involvement relative to students. Therefore, the involvement of the school principal relative to students has not changed.

Budget

Thirty-eight (17.7%) of the principals indicated their involvement had been decreased, 46 (21.4%) indicated an increase, and 131 (60.9%) indicated no change in their involvement relative to budget. Therefore, the involvement of the school principal relative to budget has not changed.

Community

Ten (4.6%) of the principals indicated their involvement had been decreased, 120 (55.8%) indicated an increase, and 85 (39.5%) indicated no change in their involvement relative to community. Therefore, the

involvement of the school principal relative to community has increased.

Hypotheses: Leadership Roles

1. Ho: There is no significant difference in the authority role of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the authority role of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the authority role of the school principal. Therefore, the independent variables relative to the authority of the school principal were not significant factors in the study.

2. Ho: There is no significant difference in the effectiveness role of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the effectiveness role of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the effectiveness role of the school principal.

Therefore, the independent variables relative to the effectiveness role of the school principal were not significant factors in the study.

3. Ho: There is no significant difference in the decision-making role of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the decision-making role of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the effectiveness role of the school principal. Therefore, the independent variables relative to the decision-making role of the school principal were not significant factors in the study.

4. Ho: There is no significant difference in the involvement role of the school principal relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables. The no-interaction model indicated a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) among the levels of school district size.

In a post hoc analysis, a comparison of the involvement adjusted means for school district sizes

indicated a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between large and medium size school districts, and also between medium and small size school districts relative to the involvement role of the school principal. Therefore, school district size was a significant factor relative to the involvement role of the school principal.

Hypotheses: Leadership Functions

5. Ho: There is no significant difference in the curriculum function relative to school type, school size, district size, and experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the curriculum function of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the curriculum function of the school principal. Therefore, the independent variables relative to the curriculum function of the school principal were not significant factors in the study.

6. Ho: There is no significant difference in the instruction function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the instruction function of the school

principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the instruction function of the school principal. Therefore, the independent variables relative to the instruction function of the school principal were not significant factors in the study.

7. Ho: There is no significant difference in the student function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the student function of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the student function of the school principal. Therefore, the independent variables relative to the student function of the school principal were not significant factors in the study.

8. Ho: There is no significant difference in the budget function relative to school type, school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the budget function of the school principal. Also, the no-interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables

relative to the budget function of the school principal. Therefore, the independent variables relative to the budget function of the school principal were not significant factors in the study.

9. Ho: There is no significant difference in the community function relative to school type school size, district size, or experience of the school principal.

The interaction model indicated no significant difference among the levels of the independent variables relative to the community function of the school principal. In the no-interaction model, a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) among the levels of school district size relative to the community function of the school principal was indicated.

In a post hoc analysis, a comparison of the community adjusted means for school district sizes showed a significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between large and medium size school districts, and also, between medium and small size school districts. Therefore, school district size was a significant factor relative to the community function of the school principal.

Implications

Blueprint 2000 is one of the profound legislative acts in the history of public education in Florida. Its purpose is to bring educational accountability and reform to public schools throughout the state. The dynamics of change in education, however, are ever-present. Consequently, the role of the school principal, which has been shaped primarily by changing societal forces and historical events, evolves naturally according to their influence. Throughout this process, the school principal must adapt to preserve the integrity of their school leadership position.

In the statistical analysis, the greatest number of Florida school principals who responded to a survey questionnaire developed for the study indicated increased effectiveness and improved decision-making in their leadership roles since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. While no change was indicated for the roles of authority and involvement, it is notable that principals did not indicate an impairment, weakening, or decrease in performance for any of the leadership roles or functions.

Although most demographic differences--type of school, size of school, and experience of the school principal--were shown to be of little consequence, a statistical significance was indicated between the size of school districts relative to the leadership role of involvement. Also, a statistical significance was indicated between the

size of school districts relative to the leadership function of community.

Thus, in a number of leadership roles identified in the study, the participation of stakeholders within the school community (School Advisory Council [SAC]) has strengthened the performance of the Florida school principal. The implication, then, is that Blueprint 2000 has enhanced the leadership role of the Florida school principal.

Recommendations for Further Study

The results of this study revealed a number of relevant topics. Accordingly, the following recommendations are made for future research.

1. A study to determine the long-term impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the Florida school principal.

2. A study to determine the relationship between school district size and the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the Florida school principal.

3. A study to determine the relationship between leadership style (facilitative, transformational, autocratic, democratic, etc.) and the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the Florida school principal.

4. A study to determine the impact of Blueprint 2000 on roles and functions of the Florida school principal not identified in this research.

Summary

The conclusions, implications, and recommendations of this study were presented in Chapter 5. The study addressed the four research questions presented in the descriptive statistics and the nine hypotheses of the research design.

In the statistical analysis, the greatest number of Florida public school principals who responded to a survey questionnaire developed for the study indicated increased effectiveness and improved decision-making in their leadership roles since the implementation of Blueprint 2000. While no change was indicated for the roles of authority and involvement, it is notable that principals did not indicate an impairment, weakening, or decrease in performance for any of the leadership roles or functions.

Although most demographic differences--type of school, size of school, and experience of the school principal--were shown to be of little consequences, a statistical significance was indicated between the size of school districts relative to the leadership role of involvement. Also, a statistical significance was indicated between the size of school districts relative to the leadership function of community.

Thus, in a number of leadership roles identified in the study, the participation of stakeholders within the school community (School Advisory Council [SAC]) has strengthened the performance of the Florida school principal. The

implication, then, is that Blueprint 2000 has enhanced the leadership role of the Florida school principal.

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE COVER LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

April 19, 1995

Dear Colleague:

I am Superintendent for the Marion County Public Schools and a doctoral candidate at the University of Florida, College of Education, Department of Educational Leadership. The chairman of my committee is Phillip A. Clark, Professor. The title of my study is:

THE IMPACT OF BLUEPRINT 2000
ON THE ROLE OF
THE FLORIDA SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

As you know, Blueprint 2000 is one of the most profound legislative acts in the history of public education in Florida. The purpose of the study is to examine the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the school principal relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community.

Your role is to respond to a brief questionnaire that can be completed in less than 10 minutes. To ensure the confidentiality of all participants, these data will be recorded anonymously and not identified or reported by source. At your request, I will provide a summary of the study upon its completion.

I realize the great demands placed upon your time. However, the results of this research has value for the state of Florida and for you, as the school principal. Your involvement and expertise as an educational leader are critical to the successful completion of this study.

Please use the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope for return mailing of the completed questionnaire. [Due date: May 19, 1995.]

Thank you for your time and consideration. I look forward to receiving your responses.

Respectfully,

John Smith
Superintendent

Phillip A. Clark
Professor and Doctoral Committee
Chairperson

APPENDIX B
FLORIDA SCHOOL PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

THE IMPACT OF BLUEPRINT 2000
ON THE ROLE OF
THE FLORIDA SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Introduction

This research is designed to measure your perception of the impact of Blueprint 2000 on the role of the Florida school principal relative to five leadership functions: curriculum, instruction, students, budget, and community.

Instructions

Please mark an (X) by the response that best matches your perception about the statement. Mark only one choice for each item.

You do not need to put your name or any other identifying information on the answer sheet. All responses will be confidential and anonymous.

Please use the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope for return mailing of the completed questionnaire. Thank you.

[Due date: May 19, 1995].

FLORIDA SCHOOL PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:

Please mark an (X) by the response that best matches your perception about the statement. **Mark only one choice for each item.**

- A. Number of years as a school principal (include this year):

☐ Less than 1 year
☐ 1-5 years
☐ 6-10 years
☐ 11-15 years
☐ Over 15 years

- B. The type of school for which you are currently principal:

☐ Elementary School
☐ Middle School/Jr. High School
☐ High School

- C. The number of students in the school where you are principal:

☐ Up to 599
☐ 600-799
☐ 800-999
☐ 1000-1700
☐ Over 1700

- D. Gender:

☐ Female
☐ Male

- E. Age:

☐ 25-34 years
☐ 35-44
☐ 45-54
☐ Over 55

1. **AUTHORITY:** The power or right to give commands, take action or make a final decision.

Since the implementation of Blueprint 2000, indicate the strengthening or weakening of your **authority as a school principal**, relative to the following leadership functions:

Curriculum:

- ☐ Much weaker
- ☐ Weaker
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Stronger
- ☐ Much stronger

Instruction:

- ☐ Much weaker
- ☐ Weaker
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Stronger
- ☐ Much stronger

Students:

- ☐ Much weaker
- ☐ Weaker
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Stronger
- ☐ Much stronger

Budget:

- ☐ Much weaker
- ☐ Weaker
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Stronger
- ☐ Much stronger

Community:

- ☐ Much weaker
- ☐ Weaker
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Stronger
- ☐ Much stronger

2. EFFECTIVENESS: The capability of producing the desired effect or result.

Since the implementation of Blueprint 2000, indicate the improvement or impairment of your **effectiveness as a school principal** relative to the following leadership functions:

Curriculum:

- ☐ Much impaired
- ☐ Impaired
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Improved
- ☐ Much improved

Instruction:

- ☐ Much impaired
- ☐ Impaired
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Improved
- ☐ Much improved

Students:

- ☐ Much impaired
- ☐ Impaired
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Improved
- ☐ Much improved

Budget:

- ☐ Much impaired
- ☐ Impaired
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Improved
- ☐ Much improved

Community:

- ☐ Much impaired
- ☐ Impaired
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Improved
- ☐ Much improved

3. Decision-making: The process of making a judgement, drawing a conclusion or reaching a determination.

Since the implementation of Blueprint 2000, indicate the **enhancement** or **hindrance** of your **decision-making as a school principal** relative to the following leadership functions:

Curriculum:

- ☐ Much hindered
- ☐ Hindered
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Enhanced
- ☐ Much enhanced

Instruction:

- ☐ Much hindered
- ☐ Hindered
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Enhanced
- ☐ Much enhanced

Students:

- ☐ Much hindered
- ☐ Hindered
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Enhanced
- ☐ Much enhanced

Budget:

- ☐ Much hindered
- ☐ Hindered
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Enhanced
- ☐ Much enhanced

Community:

- ☐ Much hindered
- ☐ Hindered
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Enhanced
- ☐ Much enhanced

(Note: Continued on back of this page.)

4. INVOLVEMENT: The active participation in a leadership function (task).

Since the implementation of Blueprint 2000, indicate the increase or decrease of your involvement as a school principal relative to the following leadership functions:

Curriculum:

- ☐ Much decreased
- ☐ Decreased
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Increased
- ☐ Much increased

Instruction:

- ☐ Much decreased
- ☐ Decreased
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Increased
- ☐ Much increased

Students:

- ☐ Much decreased
- ☐ Decreased
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Increased
- ☐ Much increased

Budget:

- ☐ Much decreased
- ☐ Decreased
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Increased
- ☐ Much increased

Community:

- ☐ Much decreased
- ☐ Decreased
- ☐ No change
- ☐ Increased
- ☐ Much increased

Thank you for completing the FLORIDA SCHOOL PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE. For return mailing, please use the self-addressed, stamped envelope that has been provided.

[Due date: May 19, 1995.]

APPENDIX C
QUESTIONNAIRE CONFIRMATION POSTCARD

Dear John:

I am sending this postcard at the same time that I am putting my completed questionnaire in the mail. Since my responses are completed anonymously, this postcard will tell you that you need not send me a further reminder to participate in your study.

Sincerely,

Principal

School & District: _____

[Due date: May 19, 1995]

APPENDIX D
FIELD TEST FOR VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Authority	112	212	312	412	512	612	712	812	R1	R2
C	33	33	33	44	22	44	33	44	2-4	2-4
I	33	43	44	44	11	44	33	33	1-4	1-4
S	33	33	33	44	33	44	33	33	3-4	3-4
B	22	44	33	33	22	54	33	33	2-5	2-4
C	22	44	44	55	33	55	33	44	2-5	2-5

Effectiveness

C	33	33	44	44	11	44	33	44	1-4	1-4
I	33	33	44	44	11	44	43	44	1-4	1-4
S	33	33	44	44	33	45	34	44	3-4	3-5
B	22	44	33	22	11	44	44	33	1-4	1-4
C	22	44	44	33	22	55	44	44	2-5	2-5

Decision-Making

C	33	33	44	44	11	43	33	44	1-4	1-4
I	33	33	44	44	11	42	43	44	1-4	1-4
S	33	33	43	44	33	44	34	33	3-4	3-4
B	22	43	43	22	22	23	44	33	2-4	2-4
C	22	44	44	44	33	33	44	55	2-5	2-5

Involvement

C	44	43	44	55	33	55	33	44	3-5	3-5
I	33	43	44	55	33	55	33	44	3-5	3-5
S	33	43	44	55	33	45	33	33	3-5	3-5
B	33	43	33	22	33	54	34	33	2-5	2-5
C	44	44	44	55	33	55	44	55	3-5	3-5

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

John David Smith was born in Hazelhurst, Georgia, on February 18, 1947. In 1951, he moved to Jacksonville, Florida, with his family, where he attended the Duval County public schools. In 1965, he received his high school diploma from Landon High School.

After high school, John attended Georgia Southern College in Statesboro, Georgia, where he met and married his wife, Billie Kay Voellinger Smith. John and Billie Kay have two children, a son, Devon, and a daughter, Amy. In 1971, John received his B.S.Ed. in health science from Georgia Southern College.

In August 1971, John and his family moved to Ocala, Florida, where he began a teaching career in the Marion County Public Schools. John taught 6th grade science at Howard Middle School and earth science and biology at Vanguard High School.


In 1980, John received the M.Ed. in educational leadership from the University of Florida and was also appointed assistant principal at Vanguard High School. In 1983, he was appointed principal of North Marion Middle School, and in 1987, principal of Forest High School.

In November 1992, John was elected Superintendent of the Marion County Public Schools, and in 1993, received his Ed.S. in educational leadership from the University of Florida. Since that time, he has continued his graduate studies for doctor of education in educational leadership at the University of Florida.

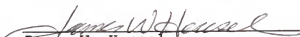
John is a member of a number of professional organizations, including the Florida Association of District School Superintendents, the Florida Association of School Administrators, Phi Delta Kappa and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. His community involvement includes Rotary International, United Way of Marion County Board of Directors, Ocala/Marion County Chamber of Commerce Board of Directors, Munroe Regional Hospital Foundation Board of Directors, Marion County Public Schools Foundation Board of Directors, and a charter member of the Forest High School Foundation. He is a member of St. Paul's United Methodist Church in Ocala.

John is an avid fisherman, scuba diver, and photographer. He enjoys reading and writing, and in collaboration with his brother Bill, has published articles in Florida Wildlife magazine and Florida Living magazine. To John, his spiritual faith and family are most important.

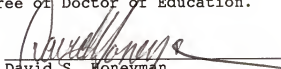
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Phillip R. Clark, Chair
Professor of Educational
Leadership

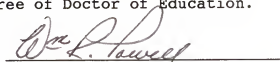
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


James W. Hensel
Professor of Educational
Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


David S. Honeyman
Professor of Educational
Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


William R. Powell
Professor of Instruction
and Curriculum

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

December 1995



Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School